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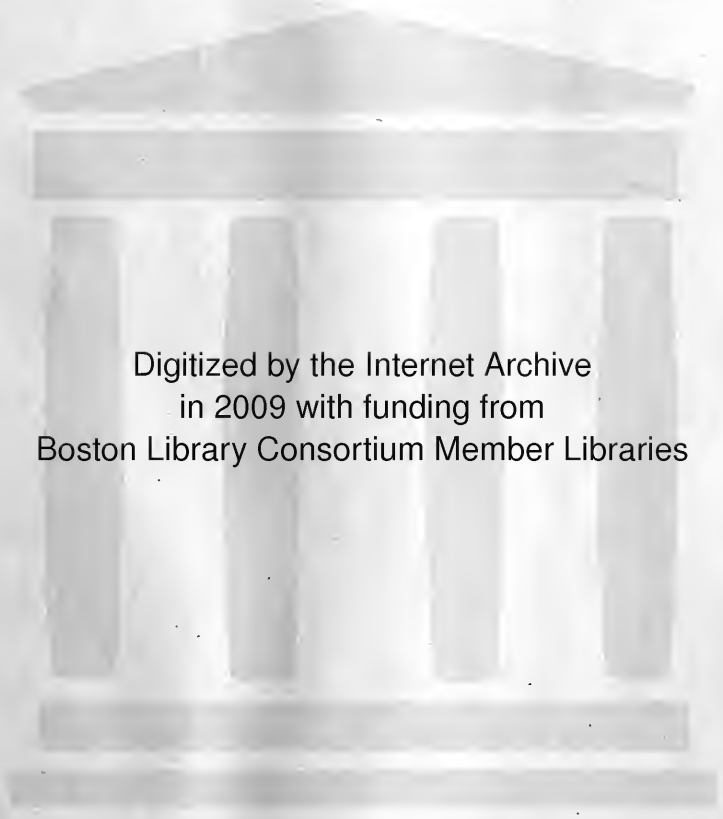
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BULLETIN

OF THE

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VOL. LXIX

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THE CATHEDRAL OF LIMA IN COLONIAL DAYS

THE FOURTH CENTENARY OF LIMA

JANUARY

1935

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

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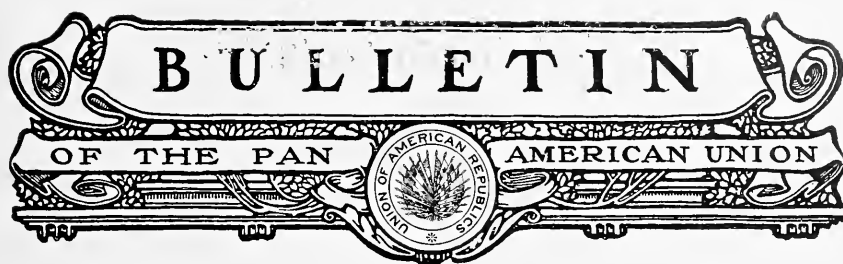


IV-CENTENARIO-DE-LA FUNDACION-DE-LIMA 18-DE-ENERO-DE-1935.

GIPPERT SANMARTIN • Co. S. A.

FOURTH CENTENARY OF THE FOUNDING OF LIMA.

In this poster colonial Lima is typified by a lady wearing her shawl in the coquettish fashion long followed in the viceregal capital of Peru. The famous Torre Tagle Palace forms the background.



Vol. LXIX

JANUARY 1935

No. 1

LIMA

By ANGÉLICA PALMA¹

To Belén de Osma, illustrious
citizen of Lima, who devotes
her noblest labors to our city

JANUARY 18, 1935, marks the four hundredth anniversary of Lima, that lovable city whose name in Spanish means both an aromatic fruit and a file, the delicate steel instrument which polishes, smooths, and persistently yet gently breaks chains and overcomes obstacles. Francisco Pizarro, the great captain of heroic adventures, founded it in the Pachacamac Valley on the banks of the Rímac, sheltered by the majestic Andes and looking out over the Pacific through its splendid window, the port of Callao. Charles V and his mother—Queen Juana, who while still young lost her reason through love—named it “The City of the Kings” and granted it a noble coat of arms with three crowns and a double-headed eagle.

As the conquering Pizarro advanced through the vast territory of Peru, he founded Spanish cities: Piura, Trujillo—the namesake of the village in Extremadura where he was born—Jauja, Lima, the city which he preferred and which he indulged like a favorite daughter. He made it the capital of the new realm and installed the Ayuntamiento only twelve days after it had been founded; the first mayors were his companions in arms, Nicolás de Ribera the elder and Juan Tello, both of whom figured, with Don Francisco, among the eleven founders of the city.

Transformed through his daring exploits from an untutored soldier into a marquis and governor, Pizarro devoted himself to

¹ Señorita Palma, a daughter of the famous Peruvian author and scholar Ricardo Palma, is also a distinguished writer and the author of several books. Among these may be cited *Vencida* (1918); *Por Senda Propria* (1921); *Coloniaje Romántico*, awarded a prize by the International Literary Congress of Buenos Aires in 1921; and *Tiempos de la Patria Vieja*, which won the first prize in the Ayacucho Contest held in Lima in 1924. Señorita Palma was a Peruvian delegate to the Inter-American Congress of Women meeting in Panama in 1926, and to the Seville Exposition in 1929; she is a member of several Spanish academies.

organizing and improving his seat of authority. He laid out the city in regular squares, like a checkerboard, indicated the main plaza, and made it easy for religious communities to build churches and monasteries. Around the plaza he began edifices to house the powers of state: Palaces for the Government and the archbishops, the Cathedral, the City Hall. The Conquistador cherished a dream that his cathedral should equal and even surpass in magnificence that of Seville; and perhaps he also dreamed of spending long years in the Governor's Palace. Providence willed otherwise. On June 26, 1551, only a little more than six years after that January 18 which marked the birth of Lima, its founder, after desperate defense, fell under the attack of conspirators. For a brief space a tile in the palace was stained with the cross which the Christian warrior traced with his life blood as, for the last time, he called upon Jesus. In the garden may still be seen, deeply rooted in the soil, its venerable branches grotesquely twisted, the fig tree which he planted and on which the eyes and thoughts of Viceroy and Presidents of Peru have since so often rested.

During that first century the inhabitants of our capital—who numbered barely seventy at the beginning—were busily building. It was then that the foundations of the finest churches of Lima were laid—Santo Domingo, La Merced, San Agustín, monumental San Francisco, San Pedro, and the modest little church of the Barefoot Friars and their convent which, at the foot of San Cristóbal, evokes pious memories of Assisi.

In that period, too, the first convents were founded. A romantic aura of romance and tragedy surrounds Doña Mencía de Sosa y Alcaraz, the founder of the earliest one. "An especially beautiful woman who was adored by her husband, Don Francisco Hernández Girón, she accompanied him everywhere during the revolution which he had headed to defend certain rights and privileges. For a year the rebels were favored by success, and the chieftain took pleasure in the visits which his wife made to the towns and cities supporting his cause, with such pomp and pageantry that she was called 'Queen of Peru.' After Girón was defeated and executed, in 1554, his head was displayed above the pillory in the Plaza in Lima, by order of the Royal Audiencia. Doña Mencía was griefstricken and saw the hollowness of the worldly triumphs which had come to so bitter an end; therefore, in her mansion in the Calle de Concha, she established on the Feast of the Incarnation, 1558, under the direction of her mother Doña Leonor de Portocarrero, a house for pious women which both entered. Years later it became a full-fledged convent, thanks to the protection of the Marquis de Cañete, then Viceroy, and of several aristocratic women who, when they became nuns, endowed the Convent of the Incarnation with all their worldly goods. Disagreements with the

superior of San Agustín caused the convent to be moved to its present location, bought for it by the archbishop, Fray Jerónimo de Loaysa. Before the widow shut herself away forever in the cloister, however, she managed, thanks to the gallant daring of a nobleman recently arrived from Spain who risked his life in the deed, to have her husband's head removed from the pillory and buried in consecrated ground."¹

Less romantic, but no less interesting historically, was the founder of the Convent of the Conception. She was Doña Inés de Ribera, the first Spanish woman to come to Peru; her first husband was Martín



THE CHURCH OF SAN FRANCISCO.

The magnificence of the exterior stonework, altars, choir, carved ceilings, and tiled cloisters makes this church an architectural masterpiece of the XVI century.

de Alcántara, Pizarro's half-brother and loyal companion, who died at his side after fighting valiantly to save him. Some time afterward Doña Inés married Don Antonio de Ribera, a knight of the Order of Santiago and the royal standard-bearer of Lima; when he too died, the afflicted woman spent her wealth in building the above-mentioned convent, where she took vows and lived the rest of her long life, dying at the age of one hundred eleven.

Other things, of a very different sort, were done by the women of Lima, who were born wits and coquettes. For example, they invented the costume called *saya y manto*, which harked back to their distant

¹ "Las Mujeres del Perú", a lecture by Angélica Palma.

Moorish ancestors with one very individual and distinctively Limeñan detail: their black scarves, unlike those of the Tarifan women, did not leave both eyes uncovered, but, held up roguishly across the face by a jeweled left hand, disclosed the line of the nose, the softness of one cheek, and a single eye, gleaming expressively under a velvety arched eyebrow.

In 1551, during the reign of the fifth Viceroy, that sagacious politician Don Francisco de Toledo, the University of San Marcos was founded in Lima; it is the dean of all American universities, with a glorious past and a troubled present.

This completes the enumeration of the three factors of prime human importance which, in the budding Lima of the fifteen hundreds, made



MAIN PATIO OF THE TORRE TAGLE PALACE.

This beautiful colonial mansion is now the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

history and created the poetic tradition of the city: Church, university, woman.

The Church: Ill-omened blaze of inquisitorial bonfires; loving kindness of Fray Jerónimo de Loaysa and of Santo Toribio de Mogro-vejo, the first prelates of the archdiocese; scholastic philosophy; continuous scratching of pens on sheets of parchment, which were to become the foundations of Peruvian historical and scientific studies and give to Spanish literature its greatest religious epic, *La Cristiada*, by Fray Diego de Hojeda; penitent asceticism, prayers, miracles, ecstasies, marvels of love and of grief, which raised to sainthood Francisco Solano and Juan Masías, Martín de Porres, and Rosa of Lima, the sweet Peruvian maiden of fragrant name.



THE ARCHBISHOP'S PALACE.

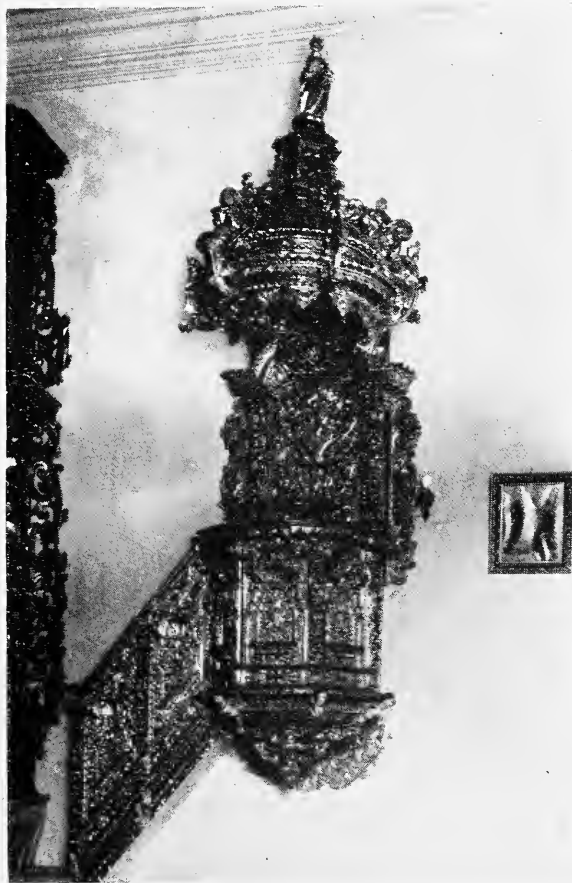
This modern building is a fine example of Spanish Renaissance combined with Spanish colonial architecture.

Since the university was born of the Dominican order, it was linked to the church, although after it was secularized palatine and worldly influences became more pronounced there. The wealthy and cultured viceregal capital took great delight in university functions and ceremonies, whether the granting of degrees or the reception of viceroys and archbishops. The former lasted two days. "The candidate for the doctorate, who had already passed the exacting examinations for the lower degree, decorated the doorway of his house with his coat of arms under a canopy, and on the eve of the ceremony went up and down the city to the music of kettledrums, trumpets, and flutes, preceded by the standards and maces of the royal school and lackeys and pages in livery, and followed by the president, all the masters and doctors in their doctoral robes and insignia, and a great throng of riders on horseback. The day the degree was conferred, the retinue went from the candidate's house to the cathedral."² There, in the chapel of Nuestra Señora de la Antigua, before a learned and aristocratic audience, the candidate discussed in Latin the subject assigned to him, listened to *el vejamen*, or jocular speech addressed to him by a fellow student, and took the customary vows; then the chancellor bestowed the degree on him "and his sponsor gave him the kiss of peace, put a ring on his finger, and gave him a book, as symbols of

² "La Historia en el Perú", by José de la Riva-Agüero, Lima, 1910.

knowledge, and girt him with a sword and put on him golden spurs, as was usual in taking the vows of the military orders of knighthood."³

Thus the Royal and Pontifical University acquired a new doctor; he was recognized as such by the president and professors, who embraced him and gave him a seat among them. That marked the end of the ceremony, but not of the entertainment; a savory luncheon at the home of the hero of the occasion was still to come; after that, in



PULPIT IN THE
CHURCH OF MARÍA
MAGDALENA.

In a church in Magdalena Vieja, a suburb of Lima where San Martín and Bolívar successively lived in the house now the Museo Bolívarano, is this handsome pulpit which testifies to the ability of colonial artists.

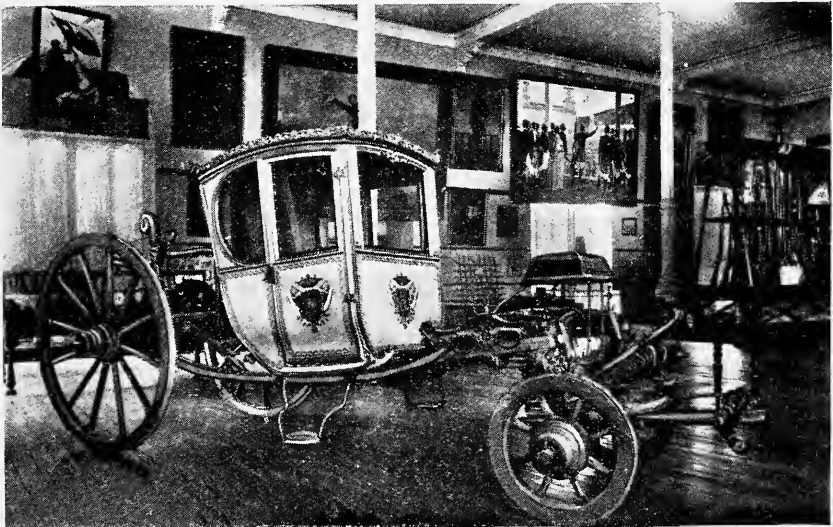
the afternoon, he and his brilliant retinue were to be seen at a bull fight.

Even greater splendor was displayed in receiving the viceroys who attended in official pomp the poetry contests with which the university welcomed them on their arrival. On these occasions there was not only greater splendor, but also a greater show of cultural pretension in the bombastic speeches and the intricate and affected verse.

³ "La Historia en el Perú", by José de la Riva-Agüero, Lima, 1910.

As for woman, we have already seen that in Santa Rosa she achieved spiritual heights. We have also seen that here below, in this complicated life on earth, where human beings move to and fro under the spur of instincts, sentiments, and ideas, the women of Lima gave a distinctive touch to the life of their city by the costume which their mischievous fancy had invented, a costume well fitted for the audacity of disguise and for the wit of gallant repartee.

Repartee—why omit it from among the characteristics of the Limeñans? Since the city was settled mainly by Castilians, Andalusians and Extremadurans, our Spanish was not corrupted by dialects; we have, moreover, enlarged the language, giving it special savor—with-



INTERIOR OF THE NATIONAL MUSEUM OF HISTORY.

In the foreground is an eighteenth-century viceregal coach, and in the background are various historical paintings.

out attacking syntax, its skeleton—by contributions from indigenous tongues and the necessary invention of words and phrases to express our Peruvian peculiarities. This is one reason why Peruvian literature has enriched that of America with an individual accent, creolism.

The aristocratic and learned capital, where in the Governor's Palace the Poet-Viceroy Esquilache held literary gatherings, the Marquis de Castell dos Rius sponsored academic meetings, and the Count of Santisteban wrote a volume of Latin verses which he called—by a title which a modernist would not disdain—*Las Horas Sucesivas* (Successive Hours), early in the seventeenth century saw its first bard appear in *el poeta de la Ribera*, Don Juan del Valle y Caviedes.

Unintentionally—as often in artistic creation—through the spontaneity of his jesting keenness and his flashing wit, both qualities native to Peru, this rakish and jocose poet began the literary tradition of Lima which later, during the Republic, was enhanced by Segura, Felipe Pardo, Ricardo Palma, and, in the present century, Leonidas Yerovi.

Down through the years, in spite of changes, the writers and artists of Lima have interpreted with loving care the complex soul of their city, mindful of the past, eager for progress, romantic and novelesque. Perhaps these capricious contrasts, which lift it out of the ordinary, explain the indefinable attraction which made Rubén Darío exclaim, “Lima is charm itself.”



PARQUE DE LA RESERVA.

Picturesque tiled fountains, pergolas, great pottery jars, and Incan decorative motifs embellish the most extensive and beautiful of Lima's parks.

TO LIMA, ON HER 400TH ANNIVERSARY

By PHILIP AINSWORTH MEANS

Author of "Ancient Civilizations of the Andes" and of "Fall of the Inca Empire and the Spanish Rule in Peru: 1530-1780"

THE Thrice Crowned City of the Kings, commonly called Lima, is about to celebrate her 400th birthday. An event of this kind naturally calls forth congratulations from the friends of the celebrant and, in this case, inevitably produces both retrospection and thoughtful consideration of the present and of the future. The truth of the matter is that Lima, though now of a respectable antiquity, is today a finer city than she ever was before and that she is destined to attain to a still more distinguished future.

When first I went thither, twenty years ago, Lima was still the quaint, partly Moorish and very Spanish city she had been for centuries. In her streets, straight, narrow, and crowded, automobiles were already numerous but still novel enough to cause a considerable stir as they sped along among the more traditional horse-carriages and the strings of patient donkeys. The pavements were mainly of cobble-stones and, aided by the universal overhanging balconies, made a din of wheels which, in the busiest thoroughfares, was almost deafening. The homes of the principal families were still in the city proper and were still the spacious mansions with flower-decked patios that had been customary in Lima almost since it was first built. The chief breathing-places of the city were the Plaza Mayor, with its lively *portales* along two sides and the Government Palace and the Cathedral on the other two, and the Plaza Bolívar, the Plaza de San Francisco, and a few other small squares before the chief churches. Except on the Colmena and the Paseo Colón, then the only wide streets, the architecture was almost wholly Spanish-colonial, and where it was not one wished that it were.

Life was highly enjoyable and extremely stimulating because there never was better conversation nor more agreeable hospitality than Lima society has always afforded; yet, although a great deal of sumptuousness and beauty was to be found in many houses, it was all unaffected and effortless. Hospitality and a generous wish to show kindness to the visiting stranger were the general rule, and it was all placed in a setting which differed only in detail from what it has been for centuries. Lima, in short, closely hemmed in by still almost undeveloped country, was a late Renaissance Spanish city, a microcosm of predominantly European character set down in a vast Andean

AIR VIEW OF LIMA FROM
THE WEST.

In the foreground is the Parque de la Reserva, and beyond it the Zoological Gardens. In the background rise the foothills of the Andes. The sea is some four miles to the east of the point whence the picture was taken.



landscape which seemed to dominate the city closely concentrated within the still restraining line of its vanished ramparts.

In a word, it was the colonial Lima which Ricardo Palma has immortalized in his inimitable *Tradiciones Peruanas*. Callao, two leagues away upon its island-sheltered bay, was a separate city which one reached by train or by long-distance tram-car; Miraflores, Barranco, and Chorrillos, tree-bowered towns beside the sea in one direction, and Magdalena del Mar in another, were so many summer resorts, served admirably by trams, but nevertheless regarded as being well away from the city of Lima. Chosica, up the Rímac Valley among the foothills of the Andes, was still often spoken of as being "in the interior"; and Ancón was a fashionable watering-place looked upon as being well to the north.

How different all this is today! The old parts of Lima are as picturesque as ever and still preserve their ancient charm. But there are many changes. Most of the well-to-do folk now live outside of Lima, the central part of which is now almost wholly filled with business. This is the result of the imperious march of progress. In the commercial quarter tall buildings rise in close formation, housing offices and stores; and very handsome bank buildings, including one



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AIR VIEW OF THE CENTRAL PARTS OF LIMA.

In the center is the Plaza Mayor, and beyond it the triangular Plaza Bolívar with the Chamber of Deputies rising on the far side of it.

Italian institution and two or three North American ones, as well as numerous Peruvian financial establishments, give an air of dynamic modernity to the business section of the city, but without really clashing with the older structures round about. The contrast is the result of an inevitable transition and of a speeding-up of the general tempo, so that it neither offends the eye nor affronts one's sense of fitness.

Improvements born of progress do not always imply a break with the past, however, for certain of the new buildings, such as the archbishop's palace in the Plaza Mayor, the School of Fine Arts in a quiet street away from the center of things, and the Gran Hotel Bolívar in the handsome new Plaza San Martín, have all been designed by clever architects in such a way that the traditional architecture of Lima has been well adapted to modern requirements. Thus, in logical manner, the past merges into the present—and points toward the future.

The greatest contrasts, and the most satisfactory, are to be seen in the surroundings of Lima. In recent years not only have the streets of the city been paved with asphalt, but also a great number of splendid roads have been built in many directions. Seen by night from a ship in Callao harbor these great arteries are so many bands of light radiating from the central glow which is Lima proper, and, so seen, they bring home to one the fact that what was a city of small area with other towns more or less removed from it has become a great metropolitan district, closely knit together and extending for many miles down to the shore and along the sea from Callao to Miraflores, Barranco and Chorrillos twinkling in the distance.

In the area thus described there is great variety to delight the eye. What was once bleak desert is now an urban area green with lawns and gay with gardens. Tall, feathery trees of many kinds are plentiful, and here and there the brown mass of some ancient *huaca* (pyramid) speaks of the age before Lima was founded. The architecture in the newer sections is for the most part an adaptation of the Peruvian colonial style, spacious and dignified. The old-time patio is tending to disappear, however, which some regard as a pity; but, as it is compensated for by an increasing use of gardens with lawns, trees, and flowers, the loss is not great after all. In general aspect the new streets are gay, attractive, and colorful, the handsomest houses being along the Avenida Arequipa, running in a broad straight line from Lima to Miraflores, and in the direction of the beautiful Country Club de Lima.

That institution, by the bye, is one of the finest ornaments of modern life in Lima. There one has the pleasure of meeting Peruvians whose names are the history of their country and also leading members of the diplomatic corps and of the foreign colonies, all mingling together

in good fellowship. Swimming, tennis, golf, and polo are amply provided for and greatly enjoyed by everyone. The building itself is worthy of the part that it plays in modern social life; for, in all its parts, it is one of the best-planned and sightliest club houses in the world.

Going farther afield, for a time, one may say that the horizon of Limeñan life was widened immeasurably in recent years. To take a taxicab in the Plaza Mayor and to go to Chosica for lunch or dinner

GIRÓN DE LA UNIÓN.

This, the principal shopping street, runs from the Plaza Mayor to the Plaza San Martín, and represents the older aspect of Lima.



with friends is now a commonplace. It is even possible to taxi up to Matucana high in the mountains for a picnic. Toward the south from Lima one can easily reach Pachacamac and its impressive ruins in a little more than an hour's delightful motor riding through varied scenery of cultivated fields, desert, and glimpses of the Pacific with its millions of birds and its off-shore islands. In 1914 a journey to Pachacamac had still to be performed on horseback and was something of an expedition.

Here a word of praise should be given to the intelligence and activity of the Touring Club Peruano to which is due, in large measure, credit for the great increase of interest in road building and motor touring in Peru. The Rotary Club de Lima has also played an important part in making the Limeñans conscious of their own country and of the infinite variety of its resources. These two clubs, mainly composed of Peruvians but including also foreigners who live in Peru and have the country's welfare at heart, are typical of the new spirit which is informing not only Lima but also all parts of the land. While there is no trace of petty exclusiveness—for the Peruvians have always been lavishly generous in their wish to share their good things with foreign-



MONUMENT TO SAN MARTÍN.

In this monument the Spanish sculptor Benlliure has pictured San Martín on his heroic crossing of the Andes.

ers who will appreciate them—there is a very decided tendency toward a greater degree than formerly of leadership by Peruvians—which is precisely as it should be.

This is particularly true in the arts and in archaeology. In the December 1933 number of the *BULLETIN* there was an illuminating article by Carlos Raygada about modern Peruvian art and especially the National School of Fine Arts, whose head is the justly celebrated José Sabogal. The influence of that school reaches into many parts of the country, quickening and deepening the younger artists' ability to render in terms of art the inner meaning of their nation's life. Here, as in so many other matters, the tradition of the glorious past, and

that of the great native race of the land, are very strong, influencing profoundly the whole trend of aesthetic and intellectual growth in such a manner as to stamp it indelibly with a purely Peruvian character.

Again, in archaeology, the leadership of Peruvian scientists is paramount, and quite rightly so. Under the direction of Dr. Luis E. Valcárcel, whose recent work at his native city of Cuzco, and elsewhere, is well known to readers of the BULLETIN,¹ the National Museum of Peru has become the very center of Peruvian archaeological studies. Well housed in a striking edifice of native architectural



THE BOLÍVAR MONUMENT.

The Chamber of Deputies forms the background to the Plaza Bolívar.

style, this collection is the largest and most varied assemblage of ancient Peruvian art in the world. Pottery, textiles, gold and silver and copper, stone, bone, and wood objects are scientifically presented in its cases, displaying before the visitor the whole vast range of Peruvian archaeology. Likewise, in the Archaeological Museum of the University of San Marcos, whose director is the widely known Dr. Julio C. Tello, a native of Huarochirí and holder of degrees from Harvard and European universities, there is another very rich collection of ancient objects. Dr. Tello's work in many parts of Peru, and especially in the Nepeña Valley north of Lima and in the north-central highlands,² is destined, perhaps, to reverse some of the ideas

¹ See *Archaeological Discoveries in Cuzco*, by Luis E. Valcárcel, BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, July 1934.

² See article by Dr. S. K. Lothrop in the November issue of the BULLETIN, especially pages 812-815.



THE NATIONAL SCHOOL OF FINE ARTS.

This slightly new building preserves the architectural traditions of Spain and of colonial Peru. The director of the school is the famous artist, José Sabogal.

previously held regarding the sequence of cultures in pre-Spanish Peru.

Nor is the pre-Spanish period alone represented in the museums of Lima. Far from it. In addition to the National Museum of History in the Exposition Palace, rich in collections that throw light on all aspects of the colonial and modern periods, there is the lovely Museo Bolívar, a spacious late 18th Century mansion at Magdalena la Vieja where the great Liberator once dwelt, and where are now conserved many stirring vestiges of his day. Moreover, almost the entire city of Lima is, as it were, a museum of the colonial period, for it abounds in churches, private houses and public buildings which contain innumerable beautiful and interesting things. For him who has time to do so—and a strong grasp on the Spanish language—the best way to understand the colonial period of Lima is to go about the city with the *Tradiciones Peruanas* of Palma, and with the more recent works of Señores Riva-Agüero and Benvenuto Murieta and José Gálvez in hand.³

If, however, it is the general picture of Lima rather than its details that interests one, it is better to take to the air. Flying is today a commonplace in Peru and is much more a part of the contemporary scheme of things than, relatively speaking, it is in the United States.

³ See: Pedro M. Benvenuto Murieta, "*Quince plazuelas, una alameda y un callejón*" (Lima, 1932); José de la Riva-Agüero, "*Añoranzas*" (Lima, 1932); and José Gálvez, "*Una Lima que se va*" (Lima, 1921).

The two magnificent air-photographs herewith were made by the Shippee-Johnson Peruvian Expedition, and they give an accurate idea, the one of the older central part of Lima, the other of its newer quarters and of its relation to the foothills of the Andes seen in the background.

Lima is a continuously growing metropolis, a city which draws much of its strength and inspiration from the past, and which directs them toward the future. Variations on the surface of Limeñan life do not imply a change in certain fundamental characteristics of the people. Now, as always, they are highly intelligent, profoundly kind to friends whether Peruvian or foreign, and earnestly devoted to the progress of their city and of their country. Lima is not a city which one can know well in a moment; such knowledge is the product of a long and observant residence. He who comes to know the inward as well as the outward aspects of the ancient city cannot fail to love her, and so loving her he will now, on her fourth centennial, wish her long life and increasing welfare.



THE COUNTRY CLUB, LIMA.

This club, which boasts one of the finest clubhouses on the continent, plays an important part in the social life of the Peruvian capital.

SECRETARY HULL ON THE OPPORTUNITY OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

AT the meeting of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union held in December, the Secretary of State of the United States, Hon. Cordell Hull, took occasion to speak of the work of the Pan American Union and the field of activity open to the Union and to the Pan American movement. Secretary Hull's remarks were as follows:

"The Pan American organization has accomplished much during its historic existence. Much more, I think, remains for it to accomplish. It has taken long steps in the direction of serving the interests—the variety of interests—of our 21 American nations. I hope that we, who constitute this Board here, may not lose a single opportunity to discover and initiate every step within the function of our organization that may be calculated to set a constructive example in this time of confusion of thought among peoples and nations, and in this period of depression through which many are going, that may be appropriate in solving the difficulties.

"Many countries are groping their way through economic fog and confusion, grasping at wholly temporary, superficial, and artificial methods and policies which are giving them no lasting relief. I hope that in these circumstances our 21 nations may carry into practice the policies and the program that were unanimously adopted at Montevideo and that we may set an example to the other nations in the throes of economic chaos and economic depression, in the hope that instead of continuing further in the direction of economic suicide they will be moved by our example and forced to halt and face back in the direction of that broad, liberal, and constructive program of economic policy applicable to our nations and the world as a whole, as adopted by the Seventh International Conference of American States at Montevideo. This is an opportunity, I think, that our respective countries, acting collectively, have in this crisis to point toward the true way out of the depression and economic chaos.

"The same is true with respect to setting an example of sane, economic progress, of international cooperation, or other purposes that are mutually profitable—purposes that represent our community of interests in social, cultural, and educational, and even in some political respects. So we have a marvelous opportunity to advance along so many lines, and I hope and feel that each of us will give the best that is in us as we go along, to the end that we may not overlook a single opportunity for broad and effective service, both to this hemisphere and to the other hemisphere."

SANTOS, SÃO PAULO, AND COFFEE¹

By WILLIAM H. UKERS, M. A.

SANTOS is situated on the island of São Vicente, 200 miles southwest of Rio (12 to 15 hours by sea) and 1,008 miles (three to four days) northeast of Buenos Aires. It is connected with São Paulo (49 miles) by the British-owned São Paulo Railway (two hours' run; 10 daily passenger trains) and by automobile highway. From New York, the distance is 5,005 miles.

The first settlement on the coast of the State of São Paulo was at São Vicente, about six miles south of Santos, in 1532. São Paulo succeeded it as the capital in 1681. Santos then became the seaport. It is one of the best ports on the Atlantic Ocean. All steamers go alongside the quays, and, whereas formerly the coffee had to be transported by carts from the railway to the warehouses and then again carried by porters onto lighters for loading on vessels in mid-stream, now the railways run right onto the docks and mechanical conveyors do the loading from the dock warehouses. These improvements were planned by an American engineer, Milnor Roberts.

Most of the city lies at sea level and the climate is subtropical. Rainfall is excessive, often exceeding 100 inches per annum, with a 10-year average of 80 inches. The mean annual temperature is 72° F.; maximum 100, minimum 40. The months from December to March are warmest and wettest, and are somewhat depressing, but the weather is much influenced by prevailing winds. There are modern sanitation and draining systems and fair hospitals. . . .

Except for its being more healthy, the business part of the town shows little change in recent years. The old, quaint, narrow streets and one- and two-storied houses still hold out against modern encroachments; though the new coffee Bolsa [exchange] has led to the demolition of a number of oldtimers and others are slated to go so as to provide a better setting for this noble structure.

The main business, of course, is coffee. Many other products are exported, but they all sink into insignificance when compared with the "magic" bean. Most of the sales are closed in the street, almost entirely in the principal street called Rua 15 (Quinze) de Novembro—and the word "fechado" closes the deal. From 9 a. m. to 5 p. m. men are constantly on the move with little trays of coffee samples.

¹ From "The Leading Coffee Cities of Brazil", by William H. Ukers, M. A., in "The Tea and Coffee Trade Journal", New York, October 1934. Copyright, 1934, The Tea and Coffee Trade Journal. Reprinted by kind permission of the author and publisher.

The town lies immediately behind the docks, stretching southward to the open sea and thence east and west along beautiful white beaches to the foot of low hills forming a background to the flat line of buildings.

THE SOCIAL LIFE OF SANTOS

The social life takes in cafés, cabarets, gambling casinos, and sports. The Anglo-American Club at São Vicente is a noteworthy institution. Then there are the Gold Club, also at São Vicente, and the Athletic Club, where cricket, tennis, and bowls can be indulged in as well as anywhere.

Most of the coffee men live as near the sea as possible. Splendid bathing may be enjoyed. The sheltered nature of the beach enables one to take to the water at all times. At low tide, it is possible to motor for miles along the beach at Santos. It is as hard and smooth as the proverbial ballroom floor.

Ilha Porchat is a picturesque spot slightly detached from the mainland, where one may indulge in an *al fresco* meal to the strains of a jazz band.

Guaruja, a nearby seaside resort with a smart hotel, is much favored by the coffee kings, especially during the winter season. It has all the engaging features of a Monte Carlo or Havana during the season.

COFFEE BUILT SANTOS

Coffee built Santos, and keeps it growing at a marvelous rate, just as cotton stimulates the prosperity of Houston and Galveston, and rubber adds to the wealth of Singapore. Fifty miles inland on the plateau lies the city of São Paulo in the heart of the world's greatest coffee-producing area, and from it more than a billion pounds of the green berries annually pour down grade into Santos for shipment overseas. As a result of this strategic economic situation Santos is the greatest coffee port in the world, shipping each year approximately nine million sacks of 132 pounds each, and worth more than \$150,000,000.

This is not the only commercial record that falls to Santos. In total exports it surpasses Rio de Janeiro and so is Brazil's premier port for outgoing trade. In shipments to the United States Santos is the first port in all South America. In most years, the coffee taken by the United States from Santos runs close to \$100,000,000 in value and about 6,000,000 bags in volume.

The wharves of Santos are of concrete, and rat-proof. There are 3 miles of them. Along them are more than a score of immense coffee warehouses and farther from the water front are as many more. Altogether, these storage places could house more than five million bags of coffee at one time.

Modern loading machinery is in use, and a ship, pausing at the Santos wharves for 24 hours, can receive an astounding amount of coffee in this short period. A typical loading scene would disclose five belt conveyors, three electric cranes, and five lines of laborers pouring continuous streams of burlap bags into a single vessel's hold. While they work their supplies are built up by countless carts and

RUA 15 DE NOVENBRO
AND THE COFFEE EX-
CHANGE, SANTOS.

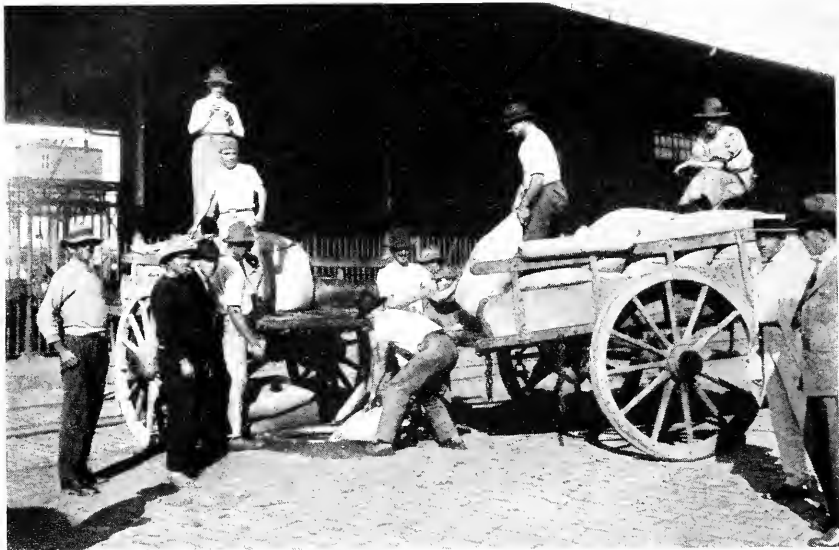
Many transactions in coffee are made in the street itself rather than in the exchange. During trading hours the street is closed to vehicular traffic.



Courtesy of "The Tea and Coffee Trade Journal."

wagons drawn by oxen, horses, mules, and donkeys—transferring the bulging sacks from distant warehouses.

The docks can accommodate about 50 ocean steamers at one time. The machinery is nearly all electrically driven and is the most modern obtainable. The equipment for loading coffee is unequaled in any other part of the world. From scores of great warehouses, in which are neatly stacked a total of from 2,000,000 to 5,000,000 bags of coffee, the sacks are transported by long trains of automobile trucks or mule carts to the dock yards.



Courtesy of The Tea and Coffee Trade Journal.

MECHANICAL COFFEE CONVEYOR, SANTOS.

Modern apparatus facilitates handling Brazil's chief export at the docks. Upper: Into the receivers, located in the streets outside the iron gratings which guard the wharves and warehouses, the bags of coffee are dumped. From these manholes, systems of belt conveyors lead up and over the piers to the steamers. Lower: With this loading machinery, several thousand bags can be delivered on a steamer in an hour with the service of but a few laborers instead of the large gangs of stevedores formerly required.

There the bags are dropped from the trucks and carts through manholes in the street, which lead to a partly underground system of endless rubber belts. When a bag of coffee falls on one of these belts, it is carried to another belt running at right angles to the first, and so on, until it is dropped into the hold of the ship itself, without having been handled by man since leaving the wagon on which it arrived at the wharves. Several thousand bags of coffee an hour can thus be loaded on a vessel with a minimum of labor.

The Santos wharves are along an estuary 5 miles from the Bay of Santos, and in reaching them a steamer winds about, directing its prow to every point on the compass. From the stream stretches the plain on which the city is built, with miniature mountains rising from it at intervals.

The chief height is Monte Serrat, from the sides of which several years ago a destructive landslide came. This little mountain rises virtually from the heart of the city to a height of 700 feet. The peak affords a splendid view of Santos and the sea. In recent years a funicular railway has been built up the slope and an amusement casino established near the top. On the crest is a famous shrine to Our Lady of Monte Serrat, and nearby is a wireless tower.

SANTOS COFFEE EXCHANGE

The Bolsa Official do Cafe of Santos is the most impressive temple in stone dedicated to a purely commercial industry that we know of. Its interior suggests nothing so much as some old-world church, like the cathedral at Milan, or even St. Peter's at Rome; only its stained glass, its paintings, its main architectural features, its columns, inlaid marble floors, furniture, and fixtures are distinctly modern.

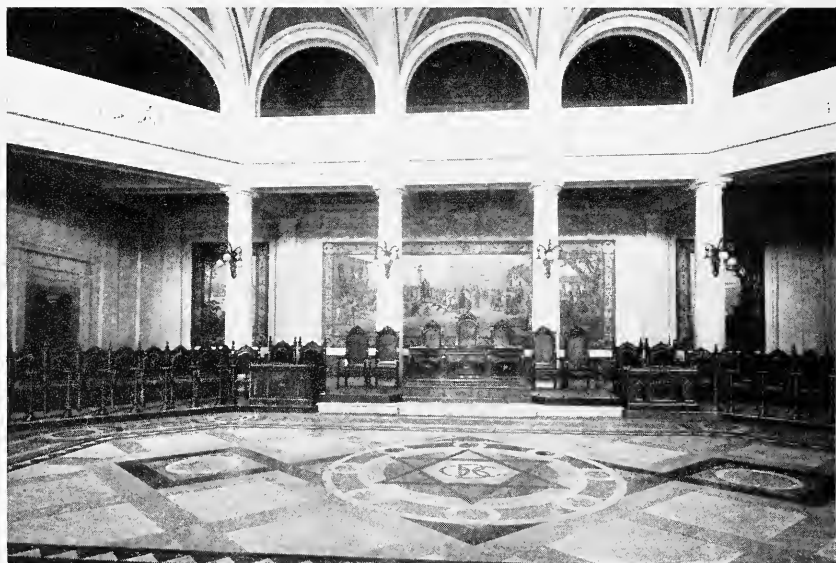
The president and other officers sit on a dais at one end. Around the big hall in two semicircles of high-backed chairs are seated the members, each with his own small round-topped table before him. A meeting of the Bolsa is a dignified event.

The Bolsa is probably one of the best organized and safest institutions of the kind in the commercial world. Sanctioned in 1914 by the State of São Paulo, and finally effective in 1917, its career from the start has been remarkably successful, especially in view of the chaotic conditions previously existing so far as future sales of coffee were concerned in the Santos market.

In the first place, the Bolsa do Cafe is a stock corporation and the Government of São Paulo is liable for 40 percent of its liquidating commitments. Every broker operating on the exchange must be licensed by the exchange, and either he or his official representative must be present at all sessions of the exchange. No broker can undertake business without depositing with the exchange a bond in

money or bonds of the State of São Paulo amounting to 20 contos of reis.

This bond, or deposit, is liable for the execution and liquidation of all deals in which he is interested or any fines that may be imposed against him. It cannot be attached for any outside indebtedness in any manner, and, if for any reason his deposit is depleted by payments out of the sum deposited, he must within five days bring his deposit up to the original amount or be suspended. Further than this, the rules provide that, in the event of a broker's suspension or death, his bond is liable for six months after such suspension or death.



Courtesy of The Tea and Coffee Trade Journal

TRADING RING OF THE COFFEE EXCHANGE.

The trading room is distinguished by a dignified architectural style, in which historic paintings of important events in Brazilian history and a stained-glass dome form the chief embellishments. The president and other officers of the exchange occupy seats on the dais, while members sit in the high-backed chairs arranged in two semicircles.

The association passes on practically all matters relating to coffee transactions, gives official gradings on all coffee brought before it, and provides for all necessary arbitrations covering differences that may arise between buyers and sellers. One of the unique regulations provides that when coffees are tendered for redelivery this can be done on the delivery of the original samples tendered with the seals as originally received, unbroken; if otherwise, they are subject to regrading, with a further charge.

A tax is collected by the exchange on all transactions, which provides revenue for the upkeep of the exchange and has also been used for the new exchange building.

Margin requirements are large compared with the New York exchange, and with the numerous safeguards thrown around contracts they are looked upon as being extremely safe. A bureau is provided for the liquidation of contracts with maximum capital of 3,000,000 reis, in which the government may be interested to the extent of 40 percent.

Brokers on the exchange are limited to those of Brazilian citizenship, must be 21 years old and enjoy full civil rights. Before being accepted they must have a certificate indorsing them given by at least three reputable commission or expert dealers in the Santos market. No one can be a licensed broker who has failed and has not received a clear discharge in bankruptcy or whose business record cannot stand the closest scrutiny. No broker, when acting as such, can be a partner of any mercantile firm or deal for his own account in either spot or future coffees.

Unlike the New York Coffee Exchange, transactions in the streets are not prohibited—as a matter of fact, the bulk of the business is done in the street—but the exchange must be notified of all such transactions. Any broker who does not appear at the daily calls of the exchange, either in person or through one of his assistants, is liable to fine, and this also applies for failure to report any transaction to the exchange made outside of the exchange.

The entire work of the exchange the past few years has been such that the stock commands a substantial premium. The market has been sufficiently trying to test the machinery of the Santos Coffee Exchange to the utmost, and its record during these trying years is one of which it may well be proud.

The large trading room is surmounted by a magnificent dome, and behind the platform are three enormous paintings of stirring scenes in Brazilian history, of such superior execution that the Federal Government has urged that they be transferred to the nation and moved to Rio de Janeiro. There are banquet halls, a restaurant, and offices for brokers.

There are some 60 concerns and individuals engaged in the coffee business in Santos. They are located on the streets adjacent to the Bolsa, particularly Rua 15 de Novembro, Rua do Commercio, Rua Santo Antonio, and Rua Frei Gaspar.

THE WORLD'S GREATEST COFFEE RAILWAY

From Santos to São Paulo the 49-mile trip is made over one of the costliest railroads of South America and one that pays perhaps the highest dividends to its stockholders. The São Paulo Railway on its way from Santos climbs the granite wall of the Serra on one of the steepest grades known in railway construction, rising 2,500 feet within six miles. The road is the last word in railway construction. Being

a great money earner, no money is spared to keep the roadbed in apple-pie order. A remarkable series of cemented channels protects the road from landslides and freshets. Every possible assault by nature is guarded against. Even rocks, beside the double tracks, are tarred to preserve them from the elements. The hillsides have been reinforced, water courses constructed, and model stations, power houses, and employees' cottages built along the way. The line frequently disappears into tunnels blasted out of the solid granite. Again it runs over steel bridges swung across dizzy heights, and these too are marvels of bridge building. There is a perfect system of block signals.



APPROACHING THE HIGHEST POINT ON THE "COFFEE" RAILWAY.

The 49-mile railway connecting Santos with São Paulo is a marvel of engineering and one of the finest in the world.

From the port the line first traverses a lowland for some miles until arriving at the base of the Serra do Mar; here the ordinary locomotive is detached and a cable-gripping engine climbs the semiperpendicular heights with three or four cars. There are five inclines of 8 per cent gradient, worked by rope haulage on the endless rope system. After reaching the station, Alto Serra, at the top of the incline, an ordinary locomotive draws the train some miles farther into the station at São Paulo. In 1901 a new line was completed following a slightly different route. The first road was constructed about 1867.

Once an American railroad man, being shown over this line, was asked if he could suggest any improvements. "Not unless the ends of the ties could be carved, the rails set with diamonds, and gold spikes substituted for the iron ones," he said.

Consider the position occupied by this remarkable railroad. Nearly all the traffic of a great state has to be transported down the mountainside by means of wire ropes for a distance of six miles. The journey over this part of the climb of the Coastal Range, or the Serra do Mar, is one of great beauty and many thrills to the stranger within São Paulo's gates, and for the engineer or railroad builder, it offers a glimpse of marvelous feats of engineering. The trip consumes a trifle less than two hours. The nonstop morning and evening express trains have comfortable Pullmans with buffet service; the regular trains carry dining cars.

For those who motor there is an excellent motor highway between Santos and São Paulo.

SÃO PAULO: THE HEART OF COFFEE LAND

The capital of the State of São Paulo and the capital of coffee land, the city of São Paulo has also been called "The Manchester of Brazil" and "The Chicago of Brazil."

The area of the city of São Paulo covers about 14 square miles, and its population is 1,006,000. Thirty-five percent of the people are foreigners, the Italians being greatest in number, followed by Germans, Portuguese, Spaniards, French, and English. There is a sprinkling of North Americans, who represent more than half a hundred different commercial interests of the United States.

São Paulo's streets are both ancient and modern. The narrow and often congested business thoroughfares contrast strikingly with the broad avenues that cross the city and extend through the newer suburban sections. In the latter we find such an abundance of shade trees that one is reminded of Washington, while the large number of detached private residences suggests Denver or Buffalo, where such attractive construction ideas are proving more and more popular. In São Paulo, too, we find types of the chalet, the Moorish Palace, the French Renaissance, and other features of architecture more or less modified to suit local conditions. The Tieté River, passing through the northern suburbs of São Paulo, is an extremely crooked stream, and numerous affluents flowing through the city in various directions seem to have influenced the early builders, and some of the oldest streets are crooked or winding.

The business heart of the city, often referred to as the Triangle, is served by active streets locally known as ruas. Thus Rua São Bento, Rua Quinze de Novembro, and Rua Direita are among the most important in the so-called "Triangle district." Overlooking the Largo do Palácio, also in the midst of business life, stands the Government Palace. From this point streets and avenues radiate to all parts of the city and suburbs. In this business area the city blocks are not so regular or uniform as are the newer sections of São Paulo. The



Courtesy of "The Tea and Coffee Trade Journal".

SÃO PAULO.

São Paulo, "the capital of coffee land", is a wealthy and cosmopolitan city of more than 1,000,000 inhabitants. Upper: From the heart of the business district the newer buildings reach skywards. Lower: Surrounding Anhangabahu Park are many fine structures, of which an office building, the Municipal Theater, and the Hotel Esplanada are shown in this view.

Avenida Tiradentes extends northward to the Tieté; from the center of the city the Avenida Rangel Pestana opens a direct course to the eastward, passing one of the leading markets. Three thoroughfares leading to the southward—Ruas Libero Badero, Santo Amaro, and Consolação—provide direct access to the magnificent Avenida Paulista, by far the most beautiful boulevard of the capital.

The numerous parks of the city reflect the large sums of money that have been expended in making them attractive. In many cases artificial lakes, natural streams, rustic bridges, statues, fine shade trees, and blooming flowers offer attractions to citizen and stranger alike.

São Paulo is a city of wealth, individual as well as official. Agriculture and industry have made many private fortunes, and these fortunes are reflected in the unusual number of palatial homes in the city proper and in the suburbs. No stranger can drive about the city without noticing the vast amount of capital and the diversified architectural talent that have been called to provide for São Paulo's wealthy residents.

On the other hand, the city's public buildings are also notable, and most of the more modern structures represent large expenditures. They are scattered through the city, among the most important being the Government Palace; the Palace of Agriculture, Finance and Industry; the executive residence; the Polytechnic, Normal and Agricultural Schools; the Municipal Theater; Charity Hospital; the Academy of Laws; the São Paulo Railway Station, etc., which rival similar buildings of any great city.

One of São Paulo's most beautiful buildings is the Ypiranga Museum. Aside from the museum's ethnographical and zoological features, the great edifice stands on an eminence in the city's suburbs where Dom Pedro I proclaimed Brazil's independence from Portugal, September 7, 1822.

Club life, sports, and amusements absorb much of the time of the people of São Paulo. Like other large cities where the strenuous duties of business demand pleasures and relaxation, ample provisions have been made in this metropolis of southern Brazil. The Geographic and Historical Society, with its large membership, corresponds to leading associations of this nature in Europe and the United States. For those engaged in agricultural production, many of whom maintain handsome residences in São Paulo in addition to their plantation or fazenda homes, the Sociedade Paulista, the Centro Agrícola, or the ever-popular Jockey Club, are the rendezvous of prosperous and well-known citizens. There are also numerous social clubs, such as the International (the oldest of São Paulo), the São Paulo, the Automobile, the Athletic, the Regatta, etc., all more or less popular

and in many cases with headquarters reflecting large expenditures in buildings and grounds. The Athletic Club's grounds stand on a hill in the suburbs and at certain seasons are alive with people gathered to witness exciting cricket or other contests. The Regatta Club, with its attractive home within 15 minutes' street-car ride from the center of the city, is especially popular with the younger business men and students, who participate in rowing, swimming, and other athletic contests.

Practically all of the wealthiest coffee fazendeiros have homes, more or less palatial, in São Paulo, such, for example, as the Prado family, the Conde de Prate, Henrique de Souza Queiroz, Bento de Abreu Sampaio Vidal, the Junqueira family, the Penteado family, Antonio José Leite, Gabriel Ribeiro dos Santos, etc.

Travelers who journey to São Paulo by rail from Rio de Janeiro traverse about 300 miles of a semi-interior agricultural region. The train de luxe on this line is usually operated at night and has excellent sleeping accommodations, passengers retiring in either city and arising next morning in São Paulo or Rio de Janeiro, as the case may be.



Courtesy of "The Tea and Coffee Trade Journal."

RUA 15 DO NOVENBRO, SÃO PAULO

TRAVEL IN THE AMERICAS

By JOSÉ TERCERO

Chief, Division of Travel, Pan American Union

ON December 1, the Pan American Union inaugurated a new office, the Division of Travel in the Americas, with the purpose of coordinating and extending the work that the Union had been doing in the past in the field of travel. The establishment of this Division comes to fill a very real need. Equipped as is no other organization with a wealth of material and data concerning the American Republics, the Pan American Union is in a favorable position to render invaluable services to the thousands of prospective travelers who need and seek accurate and up-to-date information about the New World as a field of travel.

Many observers agree that the great tide of American travel has definitely turned southwards. This fact is undeniably a consequence of the better knowledge of the Latin American Republics that the American people are beginning to gain, as well as of the close relationships that bind with strong ties the twenty-one American Republics. The promotion of travel in the Americas falls well within the scope of the Pan American Union. Having as one of its paramount purposes the promotion of closer acquaintance and better understanding among the peoples of the New World, the Union is well aware of the importance of travel in achieving these ends.

Perhaps no other means lends itself so well to awakening a more intelligent interest in and knowledge of the tradition, the lives, the problems and the ideals of neighboring nations as the interchange of visits among their citizens. Indeed, little elaboration is needed on this point, as history repeatedly shows that prejudices and misunderstandings often arise from lack of personal contact and acquaintance.

But aside from these considerations, important as they are, the Pan American Union undertakes this new activity knowing full well that no other single section of the world offers more attractions to the traveler than the Americas. A region blessed by nature with unsurpassed natural beauties; having within its confines an unequalled range of climes and altitudes; offering a variety of contrasts that cannot be duplicated elsewhere; presenting a fascinating panorama of twenty-one youthful and progressive nations, each developing and growing within a peculiar and distinctive environment under the combined influences of two civilizations—such is the American world.

The visitor from the North will see the magnificent remains of the ancient indigenous civilizations that had achieved an amazingly high level before the coming of the European. He will see the glory of one of the greatest colonial empires the world has ever known, the work of viceroys and missionaries. He will see fortresses, palaces, cathedrals, and noble universities and other institutions of learning that have been advancing culture for over 300 years. He will see great metropolises, teeming with busy thousands who live the fast tempo of modern life, incessantly growing and keeping abreast with the latest

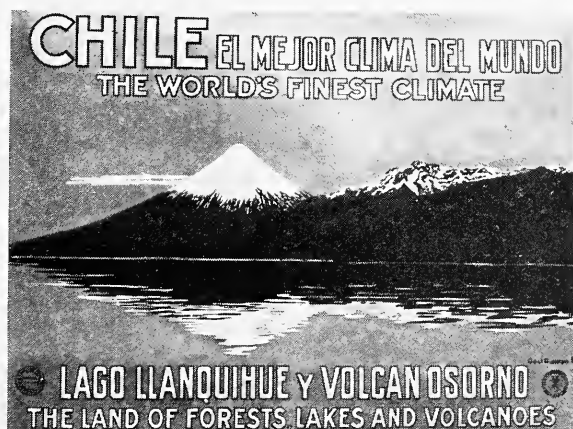


TRAVEL INFORMATION BOOTH AT THE PAN AMERICAN UNION.

The new Travel Division is equipped to provide information of all kinds for the prospective traveler to Latin America.

developments of twentieth-century science, industry, commerce, and progress.

To the man from the South the great North American neighbor has always been a source of wonderment. With a vision of a glorious past deep in his mind, he can here look into the future. Here will he see man's ingenuity at its best, the conquest by man of nature and machine, the amalgamation of many nationalities into a vigorous people, the transformation of deserts into blooming gardens, rich and mighty cities throbbing with an activity that will make his blood surge faster, the giant industries that he himself is beginning to build, the great institutions after which some of his own have been patterned.



TRAVEL POSTERS OF LATIN AMERICA.

Upper left: A natural phenomenon and historical shrine in Colombia. On the slopes of the Pasto (or Galeras) Volcano the American forces under Bolívar won the battle of Bomboná on April 7, 1822. The volcano, which lies near the Colombian-Ecuadorian border, is easily accessible by railway. Upper right: An Argentine railway poster. The traveler may now go in comfort to Lake Nahuel Huapi, situated in the national park of the same name, which contains some of the most magnificent scenery in the Republic. This is one example of the efforts being made to induce Argentine citizens to become better acquainted with their own country. Lower: An invitation to visit the lake region of Chile. Southern Chile, sometimes called "the Switzerland of America", is increasingly popular as a summer resort. Since Chile is in the southern hemisphere, it is summer there while it is winter in the United States.

To extend the knowledge of these facts, to give all possible aid and advice to travelers from all sections of the continent, and to furnish without cost of any kind to groups and individuals alike all the information that the Pan American Union has at its disposal will be the aim of the new Division.

To carry on its work the Division will keep in close contact with Government Departments, travel agencies, chambers of commerce, transportation companies, associations, and individuals in all the republics of the Americas. The Division will disseminate useful data through the agency of newspapers and magazines, through the various publications of the Union, and through direct, personal circularization.

Having secured the cooperation of the leading transportation companies that serve the Americas by land, sea, and air, the Division starts its activities most auspiciously. The Division takes pleasure to offer its services to the readers of the BULLETIN and to all who may be interested in travel in the Americas.

All requests should be addressed as follows: "Travel Division, Pan American Union, Washington, D. C."



INTER-AMERICAN RELATIONS

A PROGRAM OF THE UNITED STATES JUNIOR CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

By W. A. GALLOWAY

Chairman of the South and Central American Relations Committee of the United States Junior Chamber of Commerce, and Secretary of the Birmingham, Alabama, Foreign Trade Club

IN recent years it has become more and more apparent that the economic and social problems of one nation may affect all the rest, and this is particularly true of the nations of the Western Hemisphere. Naturally we can understand our common and individual problems better if we know one another better, and therefore the importance of more friendly relations between the peoples of Latin America and the United States is a subject of great interest to the younger business men of the United States. At its annual convention held at Miami, Florida, last year, the United States Junior Chamber of Commerce adopted a resolution presented by the Birmingham, Alabama, Junior Chamber of Commerce that the national organization should undertake an educational program within the United States aimed at building, through her young people, a foundation of knowledge and understanding of the cultural, social and economic background of the countries of Latin America. This will be accomplished through a well-planned program of activities which includes, among other points, the encouragement of more study in the schools of the United States of the history and languages of Latin American countries, an activity in which the Pan American Union has long been engaged.

The program has been received with interest by the local Junior Chambers of Commerce affiliated with the national organization and its importance as a means of improving the relations of the United States with Latin America is fully appreciated. The activity will be carried forward by a network of local Central and South America Relations Committees of Junior Chamber member organizations in the principal cities of the United States, each responsible to a regional member of the national committee. The members of the national committee are in turn responsible to the national committee chairman who will have general supervision over the program throughout the nation. The program will immediately be brought to the attention of our national, state, and local governmental and educational authorities, and the aid of interested civic groups will be sought.

It is really amazing that so little attention is still given in the United States to the importance of developing more knowledge of Latin America among the young people of our country, although thanks to the efforts of the Pan American Union progress has been made in recent years. Our high schools have placed but little emphasis upon the history of Latin America and few textbooks appropriate for secondary schools have been written dealing exclusively with the subject. Educators have in general been contented to use textbooks on World History and on American History, which include some mention of the Spanish Colonies and the American Republics, but have failed to include special courses on the history of Latin America. This educational program of the United States Junior Chamber of Commerce has for its main objective the encouragement of such special courses. In a few high schools and many colleges and universities courses on the history of Latin America are offered and in those localities local member organizations will endeavor further to increase the interest of students in taking these courses.

As an aid toward emphasizing Latin America in the schools, the United States Junior Chamber of Commerce is seeking to have the week of April 8-14, inclusive, 1935, designated *Pan American Week* in all of the schools of the nation, since April 14 was five years ago set aside as Pan American Day by all the American Republics, following action by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. Teachers in both the grade and high schools will be requested to emphasize Latin American subjects in all classrooms throughout the week. The schools will be asked to close the week with a pageant on *Pan America* and so to plan the pageant that students of all ages and grades may have a part in it.

The eight-point program which forms the basis of this activity is as follows:

1. Encourage the building up of a comprehensive library of books on Latin America for children of all ages in the public schools of the United States.
2. Encourage the high schools of the United States to include in their curricula a course of study on the history of Latin America.
3. Further encourage emphasis upon the study of Spanish and Portuguese in the high schools of the United States.
4. Arrange for members of the local Junior Chambers of Commerce to speak on Latin America before the high schools and civic organizations in their respective cities.
5. Encourage teachers, parents, and young people to travel in Latin American countries so that they may form close ties through association with Latin American people.

6. In those localities of the United States where outstanding young men and young women are rewarded for excellence in scholarship or public speaking, encourage the offering of an award to include travel in Latin American countries.

7. Encourage more and more favorable publicity on all subjects affecting inter-American relations.

8. Encourage thinking on the part of all Americans on the Reciprocal Trade Idea.¹

An old Spanish proverb wisely states: "He who would bring home the wealth of the Indies must carry the wealth of the Indies with him." If the people of the United States would increase the goodwill of Latin Americans toward them, how better can they accomplish this than through a knowledge and complete understanding of the people of Latin America? Again, how may they better accomplish this than through the development of the young men and young women of today, who will guide the policies of our nation tomorrow.

That this educational program will succeed is assured by the character of the organization that is sponsoring the movement. Organized in 1920, the United States Junior Chamber of Commerce has grown into an organization with 170 Junior Chamber of Commerce member affiliates located in as many of the principal cities of the country. It has for its purpose the promotion of business success, the teaching of civic responsibility, the expression of the younger man's point of view, the encouragement of cooperative action between and among local Junior Chambers of Commerce, the fostering of a closer working relationship between local Junior Chambers of Commerce and senior organizations, the organization of Junior Chambers of Commerce by those Chambers of Commerce in cities having no junior organization, and support for local senior organizations by providing trained man power.

It is interesting to note that there has been an increase with the passing of years in both the number of organizations affiliating with the national organization and in the number of individual memberships in local Junior Chambers of Commerce.

¹ Reciprocal trade envisages the negotiation and carrying out of commercial agreements between American republics designed to increase trade in such commodities as are produced in some countries and which are complementary to products from other nations.—EDITOR



JOSÉ CECILIO DEL VALLE.

The foremost figure in Honduran history, and author of the
Declaration of Independence of Central America.

JOSÉ CECILIO DEL VALLE¹

By RÓMULO E. DURÓN

"A zealous government says, I worked in the year which has passed; I shall work more in the year which is beginning. The people have confided their destiny to me; I shall be all things to the people. One tear less; one ear of grain more; one new plant which had not been grown before, will make my highest felicity."—VALLE.

THE foremost place in the history of Honduras is occupied by Don José Cecilio del Valle, the author of the Declaration of Independence of Central America.

Valle was born on November 22, 1780, in the town of Choluteca, Honduras, then a province of the Spanish Captaincy of Guatemala. The son of Don José Antonio Díaz del Valle and of Doña Gertrudis Díaz del Valle, he has been described as "a noble gentleman descended from the most distinguished Spanish families of the Province of Guatemala, members of which had held the chief political and military offices."

When he was nine years old his family moved to Guatemala; there he studied Latin grammar, and later took courses in philosophy and law in the university, where he passed with distinction a public examination in logic, metaphysics, and experimental physics. He had private lessons in rhetoric, algebra, geometry, literature, English, Italian, and French. In December 1794, he received his bachelor's degree in philosophy, and in July 1799, a similar degree in secular and canon law. In August 1803 he was admitted to the bar.

In 1805 he began his public career in the colonial government; among the offices he held were those of *Defensor de Obras Pías*, which gave him oversight of all charitable institutions, and censor of the *Gaceta de Guatemala*, the latter in recognition of his knowledge of literature and his good judgment. In February 1821 he was appointed to teach political economy in the Patriotic Society of Guatemala, for which he had a textbook printed and distributed at his own expense.

In 1813 he was appointed Minister of War, and later, in August, legal adviser to the Tobacco Monopoly of the Government.

Both in his practice of law and in his capacity as observer of the trials arising from the pardon granted to the instigators of the first agitation in favor of independence, he gave proof of his learning, his diligence, and his zeal, as well as of his tact, firmness, and personal

¹ Translated from the "Revista del Archivo y Biblioteca Nacionales de Honduras." Tegucigalpa, March 1934.

and political probity. Because of all these qualities Archbishop Ramón Casaus described him in flattering terms as "a model of Spanish loyalty."

At that time, Valle had published various works of general interest, among them one dealing with commerce, another on the best method of studying law, an outline for the teaching of political economy, and a report on the course of study which should be adopted by the university.

On May 9, 1815, General Gabino Gaínza, the Captain General, informed Valle of a royal order of the previous July 31, whose object was to have him write a study of the disturbances, as far as Guatemala was concerned, which had made "the Americas pass almost instantly from the delights of peace to the horrors of civil warfare." Valle replied on the 28th that it was "possible to present general ideas, indicate the men who had been prosecuted for influence or complicity in the insurrection, and make general observations, without specifying concrete facts and records; but to point out the real center of the fire by giving, as the order commanded, the names and standing of the men who might have instigated disturbances and uprisings, and to unravel the whole scheme of their plots—this it was impossible to do frankly in the countries where families, connections, and relatives of the secret instigators and open agents of the mischief still lived", since "the man who laid bare the truth would inevitably have to endure much suffering." But he offered to write such a study if he were transferred to the Peninsula, as he had requested; and if he did not merit the transfer, he would limit himself to expressing his observations and thoughts orally, for he wished to combine in this manner personal security and obedience to the royal service.

By this conduct, Valle justified the praise of Archbishop Casaus. With respect to the motive of this praise, Dr. Ramón Rosa wrote, with justice, "Valle was as small for his heroic adherence to the legitimate government of the colony as he was great for his firm adherence to the cause of independence and to the principles of the Republic."

After the Spanish Constitution of 1812 had been reestablished in 1820, the idea of independence received a greater impetus in the Captaincy of Guatemala through the influence of the discussions between two periodicals, *El Editor Constitucional*, founded by Don Pedro Molina, and *El Amigo del País*, founded by Don José del Valle. The former advocated immediate independence; the latter held that the time was not ripe. The discussion grew in fervor, and the result was that on September 15, 1821, independence was proclaimed and Don José del Valle drew up the immortal document in which that glorious event was proclaimed. From that day on, says Ramón Rosa, Valle "gave his undivided loyalty to the new order; his whole

thought and labor were devoted to the noble purpose of organizing the young Republic, on which he lavished the wealth of his genius."

Valle, who became a representative of Honduras in the new Government, energetically opposed the suggested annexation of Guatemala to the Mexican Empire. He was unsuccessful in his attempt to prevent it, however, and after the new political arrangement had been made, he was elected to the Constituent Congress of Mexico as Deputy for Chiquimula and Tegucigalpa. The Congress recognized him as the representative of the second of those Provinces on June 10, 1822, and in that capacity he began his duties on August 3. Valle distinguished himself in the Congress for his wide knowledge, his eloquence, and his independent ideas. Such were his ideas, indeed, that the Emperor, Agustín Iturbide, had him shut up in the Convent of Santo Domingo.

General Vicente Filísola, who was the imperial governor of Central America, wrote from Guatemala to the Minister of War a letter dated September 16 which contained this paragraph:

"From the capital Deputies D. José del Valle and D. Juan de Dios Mayorga support this party (that of independence). I think it would be highly advisable to attract Valle to the Government party by giving him a flattering position."

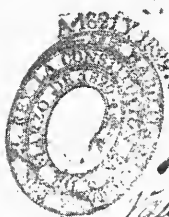
If this letter had any influence on Valle's fortune, it was not immediate, for his imprisonment lasted until February 22, 1823. At six o'clock that afternoon an official appeared from the Emperor and gave him a paper containing his appointment as Secretary of Foreign Affairs, a post offered him in recognition of his merits and as reparation for the wrongs of which he had been a victim. Valle refused it, but the Emperor insisted on his accepting. The Empire, however, had been mortally wounded by the uprising of Casa Mata, on December 6, 1822. Valle acted as was to be expected of a man of his eminent gifts as a statesman, and sent in his resignation again on March 25. He said that his only object had been the general welfare, he had worked day and night, and he would continue his task in his unceasing interest in the good of the nation, but his health was beginning to fail and he had received a letter from his family pointing out the urgent necessity for his return to prevent his financial ruin; moreover, the condition of the Empire was critical, and perhaps would grow worse from day to day, and if he delayed his journey it might become impossible to traverse the more than 400 leagues which separated him from his family. The Emperor did not accept this resignation, as the Minister was informed in Tacubaya on the 26th. So Valle remained in office, continuing his efforts to keep the impending revolution from breaking out with physical violence and ending in disaster; thanks to his efforts it terminated without bloodshed or casualties. Iturbide abdicated the crown and left the country.



SE LO CUANTO: UN CUARTILLO;
DOS DE MIL CUARENTES VEINTE
Y CINCE TONOS.

DE PARTIES.

National de Jour. 3 Set. 8. 16. de 82.

[illegible]

Sincera vale.
 Peiró Girona Miguel Llanusa Torrelles

El Marques de Ayacucho L. Port. P. Balle
Angel m.^a Cardenal
José Salazar
Mariano de la Cruz
Mariano de la Cruz
Mariano de la Cruz
Torres
Luis de Valle
Vasquez



Courtesy of the Ministry of Foreign Relations of Guatemala.

THE FINAL PAGE OF THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE OF CENTRAL AMERICA.

Early in 1934 the original of this document was discovered intact, in the General Archives of the Guatemalan Government, where it lay unknown in a bundle of historical papers.

After a new Government had been organized on March 31, Valle again took his seat in Congress, where he submitted evidence proving the illegality of the annexation of Guatemala to Mexico. Congress, agreeing with the Ministry of the new Government, explicitly recognized the rights of the Central Americans to adopt the government they thought best, and thus the order of things begun on January 5, 1822, came to an end.

Valle returned to Guatemala after the Constituent Assembly had issued the decree of July 1, 1823, declaring the absolute independence of Central America. On his return trip he measured altitudes, compared temperatures, studied the most notable varieties of plants in the territory through which he passed, visited the ruins of Mitla, made a collection of seeds for later use, and brought back pressed botanical specimens from different places. On his arrival at the capital he presented to the Assembly a portrait of Washington to be hung in its hall.

Valle was elected a member of the Executive Committee and took office on February 5, 1824. There he accomplished an enormous amount of work and advanced sums to the treasury for paying the garrison of Guatemala and the members of the cabinet.

On March 15, Don Manuel José Arce was admitted into the Executive Committee. Difficulties soon arose between him and Valle because the latter's opinions, usually upheld by the third colleague, Don Tomás O'Horán, generally prevailed. Arce resigned, saying that Valle had "the art of exasperating"; a committee appointed by the Assembly reported its findings on August 18, stating that the resignation should not be accepted. Arce insisted, and finally had his way.

On November 22, the Assembly adopted the Federal Constitution. Valle, with his colleagues Don Tomás O'Horán and Don José Manuel de la Cerda, promulgated it on the same day, Valle's forty-fourth birthday.

After elections for the highest offices had been held, the Federal Congress convened February 25, 1825, and proceeded to count the ballots. The question arose as to whether the majority should be based on the 82 possible votes or on the partial basis of the 79 actually cast. Valle had obtained 41 votes for the presidency and Arce 34. If only the votes cast were counted, Valle was elected by a majority. But the Assembly, in which party interests were strong, decided that the election was void and elected Arce President and Valle Vice President. The latter did not accept this election, on good grounds holding the proceeding to be illegal.

Arce's presidency produced serious trouble. El Salvador and Honduras were invaded by federal forces, and while civil war wrought its havoc, Valle devoted himself to the study of science, the cultivation of letters, and an active correspondence with his friends among the savants of Europe and America, one of whom was Jeremy Bentham,

the great English philosopher and jurist. During that period Valle founded *El Redactor General*, a paper which, according to the historian Don Alejandro Marure, excelled all its contemporaries.

Arce's administration finally fell on April 13, 1829, the day when General Francisco Morazán, at the head of the allied army which upheld the law, entered Guatemala in triumph. Valle then participated in politics again, took his seat in Congress, and without any personal efforts, by the prestige of his name alone, ran against General Morazán, whose popularity was immense, in the next elections for the Presidency of the Republic. Morazán was declared elected. With respect to this election Don Manuel Montúfar wrote: "The action of the Congress of 1830 wholly contradicted that of 1825 when Don Manuel José Arce was elected. In the earlier instance, taking as its basis the votes which should have been cast, Congress had declared that there had been no popular election in favor of Valle; but now, counting only the votes cast, the selfsame Congress declared that Morazán had won by popular vote and that it had no authority to act. This second stand is in accordance with the principles which Valle maintained against the constitutionality of Arce's election."

On March 21, 1833, the Federal Congress accepted the excuses of Don José Francisco Barrundia for not taking the Vice Presidency of the Republic, to which he had been named by a decree of October 21, 1832, and appointed Don José del Valle instead. The latter was at the time visiting his estate, La Concepción, and on his return to the capital he found his appointment. On April 8 he excused himself from accepting the position. Congress, on May 14, declared the excuse unfounded, but when he insisted, on June 1, it was finally accepted.

When the legal time came for elections, Valle was chosen President of the Republic, but destiny once more prevented him from becoming the chief magistrate of the nation. On February 1, 1834, he was taken ill on his country estate; on the twenty-second the illness became so grave that the family left for Guatemala on the first of March, taking the patient on a stretcher. That morning they went as far as an estate called *El Jute*, about three leagues away, the patient feeling enough better to fill the family with gratifying hope; but that night a long delirium unexpectedly set in and he became much worse. Valle began to talk of the Mint and of the Botanical Gardens of Mexico and then expressed his reluctance to accept the presidency of Central America. "I shall repeat my resignation as often as it may be necessary," he said; "I want them to say, *Valle would have restored peace*, and not *Valle could not attain it*. In the last resort, I shall surround myself with men of learning from Europe, friends of mine whom I shall invite hither to assure the welfare of the country and lead her out of the chaos into which she has been precipitated by revolutions provoked by personal ambition."

The following morning exhaustion and other symptoms of the twenty-second returned, but less strongly, and the sick man being more tranquil, the trip was commenced to another hacienda, the *Corral de Piedra*, still about twelve leagues from the capital. But halfway there, about ten o'clock in the morning, in the midst of a plain and with no other shelter than the shade of his stretcher, Valle surrendered his life. As the last hour approached, he had said to his confessor, "Father, I know that I am in the last moments of my existence and I have need of spiritual help to return my soul to the Creator who gave it to me." He died before completing his fifty-fourth year, leaving a wife, two sisters, four daughters, and one son.

Valle, called by his contemporaries "The Wise" because of his notable and brilliant writings, had the honor of being made a member of the Academy of Science of Paris. It is also of interest that Bentham, in his will dated May 20, 1832, ordered that rings with his portrait and locks of his hair be distributed among several of his most distinguished friends, whom he named in this order: Lafayette; José del Valle; M. Van der Weyer, Ambassador of His Majesty the King of the Belgians; Jean Baptiste Say, the great French economist, and others. Valle, on learning of the death of Bentham, persuaded the Federal Congress to decree that its members should observe a mourning period of three days.

The Assemblies of Guatemala and El Salvador decreed funeral honors to Valle, and voted that his portrait should be hung in their halls. Honduras later voted high honor to his memory.

As for Valle's ideas as a statesman, it should be remembered that he agreed with Bolívar on the necessity of a union strong enough to assure the independence and the interest of peace and of the institutions of America. Valle, writing February 23, 1822, under the title of "The Abbot of San Pedro used to dream, and I too can dream", proposed that in the Province of Costa Rica or in that of León a General Congress of Deputies of America should be held to consider the solution of this problem: *To outline a plan to prevent any province of America from being taken by foreign invaders or from being the victim of internal divisions.* Once this problem was solved, there was a second awaiting solution: *To form the most efficient plan for elevating the Provinces of America to the state of wealth and power to which they can rise.* For this purpose, they should form "a great federation which would unite all the States of America" and formulate "an economic plan which would enrich them."

The political and literary work of Valle is not yet known in its entirety; but when it is, through the publication of all his writings, he will be properly appreciated, and Central America, his beloved country, will be able to profit by his noble teachings.

TODAY'S BUSY GOLD MINERS

By WILLIAM A. REID

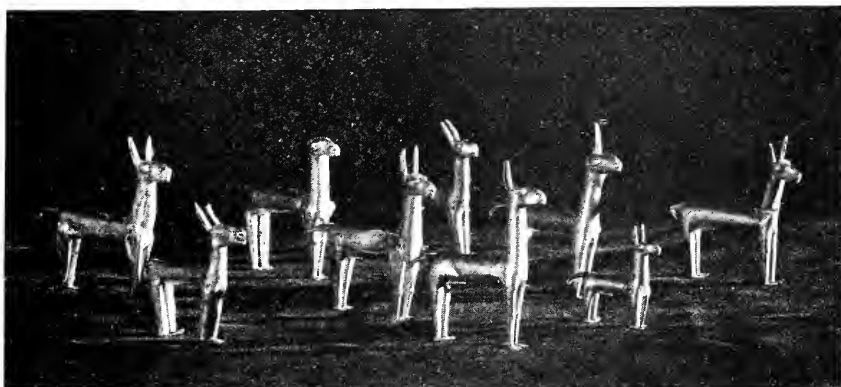
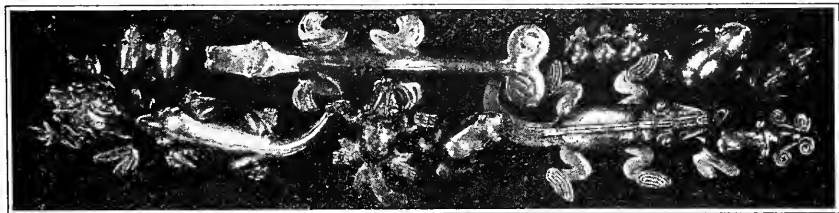
Foreign Trade Adviser, Pan American Union

“**R**OLL out, roll onward”, was the name of one of the soul-stirring songs that echoed around camp-fire and along trail as tented wagons bearing heroic Forty-niners moved slowly and laboriously westward across the American plains. Many weary months and sometimes years marked the overland transit to California goldfields.

How different with today's gold-seeking pioneers! From congested city streets to outposts of civilization the airplane is bearing adventurous spirits to many a gold-mining camp in the Americas. Not only are men and women reaching new mining El Dorados through the air but heavy machinery is likewise being transported by the same means; such equipment is delivered in regions not tapped by railroad or highway. Thus, little known and unknown solitudes are being awakened by man and machine in the renewed search for the precious mineral.

In the field are the big corporation, the adventurer, the prospector, the geologist, the engineer, the poverty stricken individual, all searching for the same product of Mother Earth. And in numerous cases the reward is becoming more notable than for years past. In the historic gold rushes to California, later to the Klondike, and still later to South Africa, there was a specific part of the world to which the mining hordes were bound. Today's gold rush is not to any particular country, with the possible exception of Canada, but to certain regions in various nations. Almost all of the American Republics, particularly those which possess vast areas of mineral deposits, are showing an active interest in more extensive production of gold. Even some of the original states of the American Union, such as Virginia, for instance, are finding their citizens awaking to the possibilities of gold washing or gold mining. Possibly of greater moment is the recent announcement of the success of the experiment of obtaining gold from the water of the ocean. At Wilmington, North Carolina, a well-known corporation has extracted gold from sea water, long known by use of the spectroscope and other means to contain both gold and silver. “But,” says the company, “the first extraction is not for commercial purposes.” This advance, however, is noteworthy.

It is not the writer's intention here to enter into complete statistics of gold output in the several American Republics, but rather to



Courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History.

ANCIENT GOLD OBJECTS FROM LATIN AMERICA.

The precious metal was utilized for an extensive variety of objects by the artificers of long ago. Upper: Among interesting pieces of Central American gold work are these frogs and lizards from Costa Rica. Center: Among the jewels found in tombs at Monte Albán, Mexico, were these elaborately fashioned gold rings and pendants. Lower: This herd of gold llamas from the Lake Titicaca region of South America is included in the collections of the American Museum of Natural History. These specimens were cast in molds and skillfully soldered together.

present a few of the spectacular features attached to the recent revival of gold mining in general in these nations. Neither is space available for discussing the various methods of mining gold in the different countries.

For the past year or so, the gold output of the Americas has been mounting; and the high prices paid for it have spurred more men to action. In watching the progress of these nations no field of activity offers more spectacular interest. Romance follows the route of men and women who are overcoming obstacles and enduring hardships and dangers on trail and in camp. Some months ago, a humble laborer in Venezuela set out from home in search of work. This man, Fuenmayor by name, boated for days on the lower Orinoco and up the Chicanán River. No one needed his services and he pressed onward. He became more of a prospector than a seeker of work; he examined small streams and perhaps panned some of the gravel. At any rate, tired and half discouraged he finally found specks that looked like gold—they were gold, precious gold! For 10 days Fuenmayor toiled almost without rest; at the end of that time he had two thousand ounces of crude gold! By the mysterious "grapevine telegraph" other miners heard of the discovery and began to come to the scene; in a single week a thousand men arrived. And they were not disappointed, for according to information from Venezuela, from five to six hundred ounces of yellow metal were obtained in the vicinity of the Fuenmayor find.

Of course, when the news reached the Venezuelan authorities at Ciudad Bolívar on the Orinoco they took over the task of maintaining order and of further developing that particular region. Today, men and machinery are busy there. For years the region watered by the Orinoco and its tributaries has been an area of mining operations. Among other properties, the Callao vein is famous because of the amount it has yielded its exploiters.

Another and equally suprising case is that in the Province of Azuay in Ecuador. Early in 1934 the village of Sig-Sig was suddenly deprived of its male population; they went hunting—hunting for gold. So scarce are men in Sig-Sig that women are reported to be performing the duties of police and of the local judge. Statistics, so far as available, are to the effect that in 10 months one man has secured enough gold to net him an average of 50,000 sucres or about \$8,300 a month. Other gold washers were not so successful, but at least a certain percentage of them found some return for their labor.

According to E. J. Fitzsimmons, living at Baños, Ecuador, adventurers are moving eastward along the Pastaza River, a stream flowing toward the Amazon. A lone prospector, says Mr. Fitzsimmons, can pan about 24 ounces of gold a year in the Pastaza or Napo River regions. This amount in United States money would

more or less equal \$800. Sometimes an unusual deposit is discovered. In one case a fortunate individual found on the Napo in one day sufficient gold to net him about \$600.

From a production of 1,204,000 grams of gold in 1924 there was a gradual increase in output in Ecuador to more than 2,000,000 grams in 1929; and based on present activity the total amount produced in 1934 will doubtless be larger than during any like period of the past.

About a year ago a corporation operating mines in Colombia decided to expand activities. Orders were placed in the United



TRANSPORTATION DIFFICULTIES.

The expansion of gold-mining activities in Colombia necessitated the carrying of much material by mule train in the higher altitudes.

States for a quantity of steel sheets. Ships delivered the order at Puerto Colombia; steamers transported the material up the Magdalena to Puerto Berrío; railroad trains took it to an inland station from which motor trucks hauled it 12 miles to Yolombo. Here the sheets were bent into pipe rolls and loaded on the backs of mules for a 35-mile journey to the Viborito mines. Each mule carried a load of 125 pounds and many trips were made. Once at the mines, laborers, implements, machinery, and electricity joined forces to construct a mile of steel pipe, joints being welded by electricity. Then

the pipe was laid. A canal brings water from a nearby mountain to the high end of the pipe line. At the low end a powerful stream of water pours out of the pipe. Workmen direct this force against gold-bearing gravel of the hills. It is a battle of man and water against earth. And man and water win! The gravel gives up its particles of gold.

In speaking of the gold output of Colombia, the Chief of the National Bureau of Mines recently said: "At the present time Colombia is producing about 30,000 ounces of gold per month . . . the Government leases the right to exploit river beds proper up to 30 years; the nation receives a royalty of 7 percent of the metal extracted. Mines located in the vicinity of river beds may usually be leased from private owners with a payment of from 10 to 12 percent of the gross yield." The same official says that a company entering Colombia should have at least \$50,000 capital. To acquire mines already in operation much more money is needed.

In 1933, Colombia's gold production was worth \$13,000,000, based on the new value of the mineral.

One of the outstanding gold-mining achievements of 1934 occurred in Peru. Those sponsoring the enterprise decided to send modern machinery to the isolated region of Huanacopampa, where fabulously rich gold-bearing gravels and ores had been worked since before the days of Pizarro. But how could this be done? No highway, not even a wagon trail, led from Cuzco or from any other place to the region. By arrangement with the Pan American-Grace Airways freight-carrying facilities were provided on one of the company's planes. Imported machinery was sent 500 miles by railroad from the port of Mollendo up to the high Andean plateau and north to Cuzco. Here the plane came into action. Although Huanacopampa is only 60 miles from Cuzco the mule pack-train requires from 10 to 20 days to cover the distance, and the weight a mule can carry is limited. In the first ten days 33 cargoes were transported by plane. The flights between Cuzco and the scene of operations necessitated rising to a height of 16,000 feet over the snow-capped ranges of the Andes, and then descending to 12,500 feet, the altitude of the proposed operations. The largest single piece of machinery weighed 4,360 pounds, and many other pieces were almost as heavy. Late reports coming from the scene of operations are gratifying to the Peruvian capitalists who are backing the enterprise. They are also using the airplane rather than the mule-train to transport the gold to outside markets.

What country in South America produced seven times as much gold in 1933 as in 1931? The answer is, Chile, which seems to be finding profitable work for thousands of her former unemployed citizens by having them hunt for this precious metal. Looking over the Chilean mining statistics we note an upswing in output of gold since 1928:



Courtesy of the Pan American-Grace Airways.

AIRCRAFT AID MINING OPERATIONS.

The problem of transporting 735 tons of mining machinery from Cuzco to the mine head at Huanacopampa in the Andes was solved by the use of an airplane. Upper: To carry the heavy material would have required 7,300 mules. Lower: Indian arrieros with their llamas are interested spectators at the loading operation.

In the latter year, the monthly production was about 88,700 grams; in 1929, 85,640 grams; in 1932, 98,740 grams; in 1933, 377,235 grams, or a total of more than four and a half million grams for the entire year.

Coquimbo is one of the smaller ports lying approximately mid-way along the Chilean coast. Across the bay from Coquimbo is the village of La Serena; and from there an unimproved trail extends across the barren region toward the foothills of the Andes. On the arid plain about half-way between the ocean and the mountains Andacollo has existed since the Spanish explorers built a little church there in 1668. These pioneers found some gold and other minerals thereabout, and a town was started which, however, never grew large.

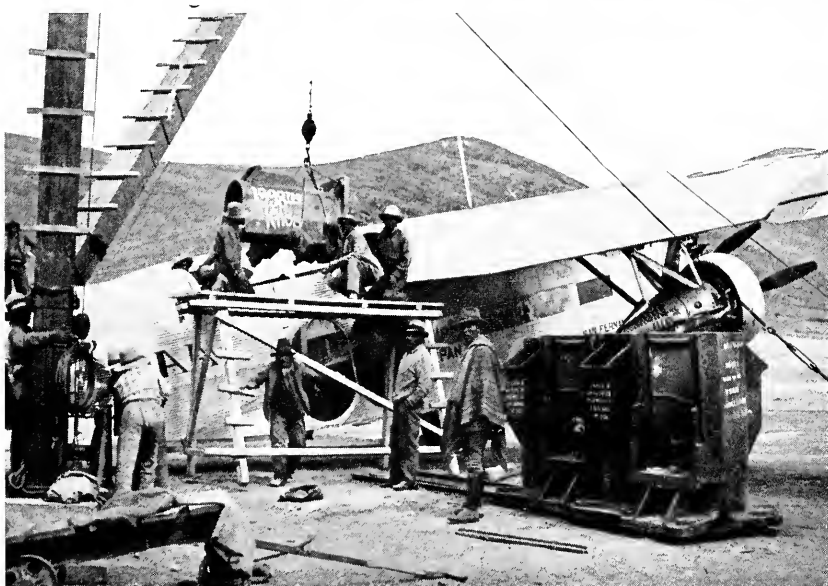
But hard times and unemployment turned men's minds toward the precious minerals of northern Chile.

The village of Andacollo is unknown to the world in general. But it has become a Mecca for gold seekers and other adventurers. Two years ago this sleepy village counted only 800 people and their business interests were unimportant. Today, more than 17,000 gold diggers, or more properly speaking gold washers, occupy Andacollo and the surrounding region. Every available house and shelter is in service and thousands of new shacks have been hurriedly constructed in order to house at least some of the families that are flocking to the new El Dorado on foot, on horseback, and by wagon. A few lucky owners of motor cars have pressed them into service and journeyed over sandy wastes to reach the gold fields.

Andacollo, Talca Gulch, Arrayán Gulch, and El Toro Gulch are today producing gold on an increasing scale. Washing gold in this Chilean Klondike has brought men, women, and children into action; and the Government of Chile is aiding the workers and buying the result of their labors. On the average, a ton of washed dirt or gravel yields half a gram of gold.

Where such large numbers of people have so suddenly gathered almost every kind of business is springing up. Rooming houses, shops, hotels, food stores, and other enterprises are flourishing. The Government is extending sanitation and public bathing facilities and the famous Chilean carabineros are there to maintain order. More than 30,000 people are reported in the advance guard of the Chilean gold rush of 1934.

Four years ago a report on mining in Brazil said, among other things, "Gold mining is in frank decadence." But wonderful changes have occurred. Perhaps never before has the National Geographical Service of Brazil seen busier days. It has been directed by the Government to make all the investigations of promising gold properties its facilities will permit. When it is remembered that one Brazilian state alone, Minas Geraes, has mined several million grams of gold



Courtesy of Pan American-Grace Airways.

A RECORD FREIGHT SHIPMENT.

The world's largest air freight contract was fulfilled in 421 round trips at the rate of five a day of approximately one hour flying time for each. Upper: This air view of the Andean Range between Cuzco and Huanacopampa illustrates the difficulty of land transportation. Lower: Twenty-seven heavy pieces such as these mortars, weighing from 4,250 to 4,400 pounds, were carried by a plane especially chartered from the Pan American-Grace Airways.

per year, or 45,000,000 grams from 1920-1931, it is only natural for officials to pay attention to the gold deposits of other parts of the country also. Accordingly, the Geographical Service has its experts in the field in various States, such as Pará, Goyaz, Rio Grande do Sul, Bahia, and elsewhere.

With official facilities aiding individual and corporation alike and with so many prospectors occupying mining claims, it is not surprising that a recent dispatch from Rio de Janeiro says that the richest gold-

THE "CLEAN-UP."

Water is indispensable in placer mining.



Courtesy of "Modern Mexico."

bearing deposits so far known in Brazil were discovered in September last. Basing estimates on ores already analyzed, the value of the new field runs into millions of dollars.

Decree No. 24,193, recently promulgated by the Brazilian Government, regulates prospecting for gold and precious stones, the exportation of gold and gold sweepings and other activities in connection with mining. One provision requires new companies organizing for gold land exploitation to deposit with the Government 10 per cent of

their capital as a guarantee that work will begin in one year. It is estimated that about 50,000 people in Brazil are engaged in one or another form of gold mining.

Most of the Central American Republics have long sent small quantities of gold to world markets. In the heart of that region the Rosario Mines, near Tegucigalpa, are famous for their output through a number of years. Today, however, a new enterprise is about to begin operations in Agua Fría where, it is believed, the mineral exists in quantity. Several hundred thousand dollars are reported to be available for the purpose which, of course, means operation by both man and machine on a large scale. In various parts of Honduras natives are engaged in gold washing in the streams, with some degree of success. More than 320,400 grams were produced in the country in 1929.

In Guatemala, only one important corporation has been mining gold. Its operations are at Las Quebradas, where placer dredging has produced from 10,000 to 14,000 ounces of gold annually for the past few years. More than 1,500,000 cubic yards of earth were handled yearly to produce this result.

Nicaraguan production of gold has been rising in response to higher prices. In September last the Los Ángeles mines, the most important in the country, were beginning to export the crude metal. Primitive transportation facilities are blamed for the lack of larger gold output. The annual amount produced in Nicaragua reached more than \$1,000,000 in value in the years 1918 to 1922, but declined until higher gold prices caused renewed search for deposits.

Costa Rica, which has long produced small quantities of gold, showed an upward swing in 1932. In that year, the crude bars were valued at 215,828 colones, or \$47,266. This was 71,200 colones over the previous year's output.

In El Salvador a new gold-mining impetus also is noticeable. The Secretary of Finance has recommended that a United States corporation be permitted to import free of duty machinery and materials for operating the Monte Cristi mine in the Department of Morazán. If this privilege is granted the promoters of the enterprise expect to spend considerable money in operations and thus give employment to many Salvadoreans.

In the Dominican Republic and Haiti, gold mining attracted the early Spanish conquerors, who came in the wake of Columbus. After a time the search ceased by reason of richer finds in other parts of the New World. Says the latest report of the Receiver General of the Dominican Customs: "The depression brought about wide-spread unemployment in the Dominican Republic. Hence, more people, both men and women, have turned to the simple task of washing gold in the streams. . . . The crudest methods are employed; no apparatus

is used, there is no hydraulic power—everything is done by hand.” But in 1933 more than \$50,000 worth of gold was obtained by these primitive methods.

Those of us who have journeyed to the famous cities of Potosí in Bolivia and San Luis Potosí in Mexico have at first wondered at the appearance of the surrounding mountains. In both regions they have a honeycombed appearance. Human beings, like burrowing animals, have left innumerable traces of attempts to dig into the earth. Modern man, however, has thus sought riches rather than protection. In the past the seeker of gold penetrated into the surface of the earth as one method of finding and extracting the precious ores. Today,



Photograph by George P. Shaw. Courtesy of "American Foreign Service Journal."

GOLD DIGGING IN SAN LUIS POTOSÍ, MEXICO.

During four recent months, 13,000 tons of the richest tailings have been taken from this patio in one of the oldest buildings in the city.

man and machine sometimes begin at the top of a mountain and work downwards; mechanical shovels do the work of hundreds of men. For instance, at Chuquicamata in Chile mining operations are gradually tearing down a mountain; and while copper is the principal mineral sought, some gold is also found by this modern and gigantic enterprise.

Consul George P. Shaw reports from San Luis Potosí, Mexico, that the value of the gold output in that region has about trebled in recent years and instead of bringing forty pesos per ounce is now sold at 126 pesos per ounce. And this official says further: "That is the reason the streets of San Luis Potosí are being torn up and shipped to the American smelter at the edge of town as quickly as possible before something happens to ruin the bonanza." In other words,

the tailings left years ago are now being dug up and marketed for their gold content.

The search for gold has continued through the centuries. We need no more valuable object lesson as to the multitudinous uses of the metal than to stroll through such famous museums as that at Cairo in Egypt. On the opposite side of the earth in Mexico the excavations at Monte Albán and the magnificent golden jewels discovered there bear testimony that the aborigines of the Western World delighted in costly ornamentation just as much as did those who lived in the Land of the Pharaohs. Still another ancient people showed fondness for golden articles—the Incas and their predecessors of Peru. In Lima's famous archaeological museum there are on display various articles made of gold reclaimed from excavations in different parts of the country. Not only the gold itself but the minute and beautiful workmanship of those early people cause us to marvel at their skill.

Scientists have estimated that about 13 percent of the earth's surface carries one or another class of ore from which gold is obtained. Many such areas have never been brought into production because of their inaccessibility. But modern peoples have banished that long word from their vocabulary. Airplanes, motor cars, power boats on river courses, are penetrating the impenetrable. As demand for gold continues or increases no doubt Mother Earth can keep up the supply. Certain it is that new areas are responding to Man's renewed call; and American nations are doing their full share in adding to the world's output of crude gold ores.



LAKE NAHUEL HUAPÍ

HIGH in the Patagonian Andes lies Lake Nahuel Huapí, the chief jewel in the Southern National Park of Argentina. This park is a monument to a patriotic explorer, Francisco Moreno, who in his youth was captivated by its charms. After the boundary controversy with Chile had been settled in 1902, the Argentine Government granted him a large tract of land in the region about the lake in return for his services on the boundary commission; this he handed back to the nation to be made into a national park, in the hope, since fulfilled, that the Government would add other lands to it. The park now contains a tract of over 3,000 square miles, set apart by a decree of April 8, 1922, for the recreation and benefit of the Argentine people. Its area was redefined in law no. 12103 of October 9, 1934, creating the Bureau of National Parks, a dependency of the Ministry of Agriculture. The bureau will, among other duties, "provide for the preservation of the parks and their beauty; encourage scientific and historical investigation; organize and encourage tours to the parks."

The Patagonian Andes are quite different in aspect from the northern cordilleras of that mighty mountain range, which form an almost insuperable barrier, dominated by rugged peaks, along the Pacific coast. From about 38° south latitude down to the Strait of Magellan the Andes change radically in character. The cordillera opens, widening and dividing into parallel ranges, and there is a confusion of peaks, valleys, and chasms where rivers run sometimes slowly, sometimes torrentially.

Lake Nahuel Huapí, which in the local Indian dialect means "Lake of the Tigers", covers 308 square miles and its winding shore is 155 miles long. It extends from the principal range of the cordillera between lofty mountains and cordons of forest-clad foothills to the treeless lowlands lying between the western plateaus of the Negro River and the cordillera.

The lake is long and narrow, with deep gorges radiating from its main body in all directions. These arms add greatly to the variety of the scene, in which waters, forests, mountains, and sky-embracing snows blend in a shimmering iridescence. Hills and mountains, shady woods and steep cliffs along the shores, mysterious islands emerging from the gleaming waters, and the distant murmur of tumultuous streams, all contribute to its special charm.

Visitors of many tastes will be enchanted by the lake and its surroundings. The geologist will find there an open page of history, where an account of changes wrought during the Ice Age and succeeding periods may be read at every turn. The fisherman will be pleased to discover near Bariloche, under the direction of a former member of



Photograph by Borquin y Kohlmann. Reproduction prohibited.

PLAYA BONITA, LAKE NAHUEL HUAPÍ.



Photograph by Borquin y Kohlmann. Reproduction prohibited.

MOUNT TRONADOR.



ANCHORENA INLET, LAKE NAHUEL HUAPÍ.



Photograph by Borquin y Kohlmann. Reproduction prohibited.

LAKE NAHUEL HUAPÍ ABOVE MOUNT BELVEDERE.

the Department of Agriculture of the United States, a fish hatchery which has populated the Patagonian waters with the fry of the Atlantic salmon and of rainbow, German brown, and Eastern brown brook trout. The botanist will delight in the exuberant vegetation, and the traveler who has come in search of new scenic beauties can enrich his store of memories beyond all expectation. Most travelers will prefer to visit Nahuel Huapí during the months of March and April, when the temperature is most agreeable; winter sports, however, are becoming increasingly popular.

To the west El Tronador (The Thunderer) rises above its fellow peaks on the Argentine-Chilean boundary, seeming to take the region under its protection. The lower ranges that crowd about the northern end of the lake sometimes bring their wooded slopes to the clear water, sometimes halt in sheer cliffs above it. Occasional meadows appear along the shores of the middle of the lake, and by the time one has reached its lower extremity, all vegetation has disappeared, and the Limay River, the outlet of the lake, speeds its translucent aquamarine waters through typical bare Patagonian pampas.

The chief settlement on the lake is Bariloche, a town barely 30 years old, with only 3,000 inhabitants, which lies on the southern shore. It is the center for many interesting excursions by land and by water; these are the chief attractions for the visitor who is not a fisherman, for the snow-fed waters are too cold for bathing, even in summer.

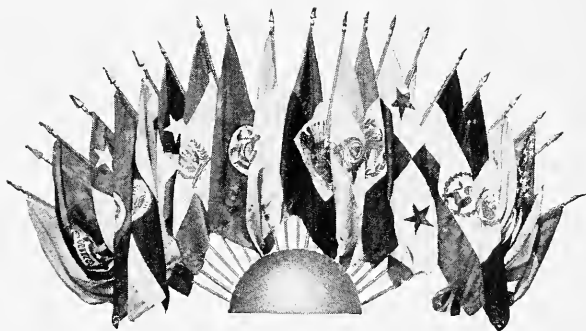
The principal excursion by water is to Victoria Island, the largest in the lake. From Bariloche a motor-boat takes the traveler to Puerto Anchorena, lying in a sheltered cove in the center of the western shore, a trip of about two hours and a half. On the island, which is about 14 miles long and less than 4 wide at its broadest part, is to be found a wealth of flowers and trees almost tropical in their profusion.

A steamer goes to Puerto Blest, at the head of one of the western fjords. On the way can be seen the strange forms of the surrounding heights, well described by their names—Hill of the Nuns, Monk Rock, and Elephant's Head Hill—and the fantastically beautiful White Cascade, whose fan-shaped waters fall with such force that vessels cannot approach the spot.

The other fjords, too, have their own individual beauties, from the gloomy depths of Tristeza Fjord to the placid charm of Huemul, girt by grove-covered mountain slopes.

By horseback trips may be taken to neighboring lakes—Moreno, Gutiérrez, Frías, Mascardi, and Traful—and nearby heights scaled. From the latter the vast panorama of Nahuel Huapí is spread out, and one carries away with him an imperishable memory of clear waters framed by mountains, forests, and rocky shores.

From Puerto Blest the traveller may continue to Lake Llanquihue, on the Chilean side.



PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

Fourth centenaries of Quito and Lima.—At the meeting of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union held on December 5, 1934, the Board adopted the following resolutions on the occasion of the celebration of the fourth centenaries of the cities of Quito, Ecuador, and Lima, Peru:

WHEREAS, On December 6th there will be commemorated the Fourth Anniversary of the Founding of Quito, a city illustrious in the colonial period and the Republic as a center for the cultivation of arts and letters, where, during the second half of the eighteenth century, there developed the democratic ideas culminating in the movement of 1809, one of the initial steps in the emancipation of the Spanish colonies in America,

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union

RESOLVES:

To associate itself with the commemoration of the Centenary and to express to the President of the Municipal Council the wishes of the Governing Board for the welfare of the inhabitants of Quito.

The Director General is requested to transmit a copy of this resolution to the President of the Municipal Council of Quito.

WHEREAS, On January 18, 1935, there will be celebrated the Fourth Centenary of the Founding of the City of Lima; and

WHEREAS, This event has special historic significance for all America because in the founding of that City are united the history and traditions of two great civilizations; and

WHEREAS, That event also has an especial significance in the development of the Pan American idea as it was in the City of Lima that the convocation for the Congress of Panama of 1826 was issued and it was in Lima that the inter-American Congresses of 1848, 1864, and 1878 were celebrated,

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union

RESOLVES:

To associate itself with the commemoration of the Centenary and to request the Director General to transmit to the Mayor of the City a copy of this resolution

and the expression of the desire of the Governing Board for the welfare of the inhabitants of Lima.

Carnegie Centenary Committee.—The Chairman of the Board, Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State, was authorized to appoint a special committee of the Board to consider the manner in which the Pan American Union can participate in the commemoration of the centenary of the birth of Andrew Carnegie, which falls on November 25, 1935. The building occupied by the Pan American Union was made possible largely through a gift of Mr. Carnegie, who was a delegate to the First International Conference of American States which created the Union and who was always deeply interested in Pan American affairs.

Report on foreign corporations.—A report from the Commission of Experts on Powers of Attorney and the Juridical Personality of Foreign Corporations was also submitted to the board by Dr. Pedro M. Arcaya, Minister of Venezuela, Chairman. The other members of the commission are: Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, the Minister of Panama; M. Albert Blanchet, the Minister of Haiti; Mr. David E. Grant, of the American Bar Association, and Dr. E. Gil Borges, Assistant Director of the Pan American Union. The commission submitted to the Board the following principle, with the recommendation that it be transmitted to the Governments for observation and comment, the replies to be returned on or before February 1, 1935:

Companies constituted in accordance with the laws of one of the contracting States, and which have their seat in its territories, but which do not have a permanent establishment, branch or social representation in the territories of the other contracting States, shall be able, nevertheless, to exercise in the territories of such other States any commercial activity which is not contrary to their laws and to enter all appearances in the courts as plaintiffs or defendants, in accordance with the laws of the country.

This same commission is studying the subject of uniformity of powers of attorney, and will submit a report on this at a later meeting of the Governing Board.

Customs procedure and port formalities.—A commission of experts was appointed to consider the subject of customs procedure, port formalities, and consular regulations in the Republics of the American continent. The commission is to be composed of the Minister of Uruguay, Señor José Richling; the commercial attachés of the American Republics in Washington; and a representative of the United States to be appointed by the Secretary of State. The commission was provided for in a resolution of the Seventh Pan American Conference which met at Montevideo, Uruguay, in December 1933 and has been created to study the possibility of bringing about uniformity in the above-mentioned subjects.

Dominican Bibliographical Committee.—By decree No. 1089 of October 19, 1934, Lic. A. Armando Rodríguez was appointed president and Lic. Emilio Rodríguez Demorizi secretary of the Dominican National Cooperating Committee on Bibliography of the Pan American Union. The other members named in the same decree are: Señor M. de J. Camarena Perdomo, Señora Abigail Mejía de Fernández and Señor Luis E. Alemar. Señora de Fernández is the first woman to be appointed to one of these National Committees.

Acquisitions.—The Library has lately received a shipment of books from a new organization, the "Sociedad Amigos del Libro Rioplatense", whose main office is B. Mitre 1264, Montevideo. It intends to publish one book a month, alternately from an Uruguayan and and Argentine author. Later the work will be enlarged so as to include books written in other American countries. The volumes received are *Ceniza*, by Enrique Larreta; *La cruz de los caminos*, by Justino Zavala Muniz; *El viajero inmóvil*, by Samuel Eichelbaum; *Los romances chúcaros*, by Fernán Silva Valdés; *Alción*, by Alberto Zum Felde; and *Teoría del Nous*, by Emilio Oribe.

A collection of works of Rubén Darío, consisting of twenty-seven volumes, is among the recent acquisitions. This comprises most of his published works, including the famous *Canto a la Argentina*, *Oda a Mitre*, *Poemas de juventud*, *Cantos de vida y esperanza*, *Peregrinaciones*, *Cabezas*, *Los Raros*, *El canto errante*, and his autobiography.

Several interesting and rare books, significant likewise for their historical value, which have been added to the Library shelves during the past month include one published in 1809 in homage to Fernando VII of Spain by his loyal subjects of the "very noble and loyal city of Puebla de Los Ángeles" (Mexico); a history of the Spanish side of the Mexican independence movement by Carlos María de Bustamante, published in Mexico in 1828, with several interesting diagrams and maps showing the lines of battle; and *La Zoología de Colón y de los primeros exploradores de América*, by Juan Ignacio de Armas (Habana, 1888) in which the author compiled from journals of the discoverers material on American fauna.

The following list includes some of the other books recently received in the Library:

Historia de los presidentes argentinos [por] Ismael Bucich Escobar. Buenos Aires [Librería y editorial "La Facultad", Juan Roldán y cía.] 1934. 623 p., 1 l. 21 cm. [Ismael Bucich Escobar is the author of various descriptive, historical and biographical works on Argentine subjects. In this, his latest, he gives biographies of all the presidents of Argentina, from Rivadavia to Justo, naming the members of their cabinets and mentioning the main events and important laws of each administration.]

Lecciones de historia argentina; época colonial (1492-1810) [por] Carlos H. Pizzurno. . . Buenos Aires, F. Crespillo, editor [1934] 588 p. illus., maps. 18½ cm. [This new textbook is a concise study of the country from the time of the first Spanish settlement to Independence.]

Régimen fiscal de seguros; análisis crítico de cada una de las disposiciones legales y reglamentarias de carácter impositivo relacionadas con los seguros [por] Gotardo C. Pedemonte. Buenos Aires [Talleres gráficos I. Platt] 1933. 2 v. 19½ cm. [The author has written five other works on insurance in Argentina. This book discusses the legal questions involved, especially in relation to taxation.]

Anuario de la cooperación; obra del esfuerzo solidario y constructivo de los cooperadores y organizaciones cooperativas del país [por el] Museo social argentino, Centro de estudios cooperativos. Buenos Aires [Talleres gráficos "La Bonaerense"] 1933. 324 p., 2 l. 2 plates, tables. 20 cm. [The first volume of an annual publication to be devoted to cooperation. Its contents include the work of the Centro de estudios cooperativos, names and statistics of Argentine cooperative societies in 1930-31, legislation on cooperation, and several addresses on the cooperative movement.]

Manual de historia de Colombia para los colegios y escuelas de la República, por Gustavo Arboleda. . . . [Cali, Imprenta del departamento, 1934] 1 p.l., 422 p. ports. 22½ cm. [A textbook of Colombian history from the earliest times up to the inauguration of President López in 1934.]

Vida de Don Juan Montalvo [por] B. Checa Drouet. . . . Lima [Empresa editora "Excelsior"] 1933. 415, [8] p. front. (port.), pl. (port.) 18 cm. [This new biography of Montalvo, called by one critic, "the highest exponent of Spanish American authorship", considers the famous Ecuadorean writer from a new viewpoint, showing the relation of his most important works to his life.]

Médico-sociologie; vodou et névrose [par] Dr. J. C. Dorsainvil. Port-au-Prince, Imprimerie "La Presse", 1931. 175, [2] p. 24 cm. (Bibliothèque haïtienne.) [An interesting study of so called Voodooism and its sociological and psychological influences. This work was first published in 1913.]

Séptima conferencia internacional americana. Memoria general y actuación de la delegación de México. Apéndice B (1ª. parte. Documentos ajenos a la delegación mexicana. 2ª. parte. Algunos juicios de prensa.) México, Imprenta de la Secretaría de relaciones exteriores, 1934. xi, 457 p. 24 cm. [The third and last volume of a report on the Seventh International Conference of American States and especially on the work of the Mexican delegation. The *Memoria* and *Apéndice A* were listed in the October 1934 BULLETIN.]

Tasco; su historia, sus monumentos, características actuales y posibilidades turísticas [por] Manuel Toussaint. México, Editorial "Cultura", 1931. 244, [4] p. illus., ports., col. plates, diags. 30½ cm. (Publicaciones de la Secretaría de hacienda.) [The historic old town of Tasco, its beautiful viceregal church of Santa Prisca, and other historic landmarks are fully described in this splendid volume published by the Ministry of finance, following the successful issue of similar works. The appendix contains varied source data for the history of Tasco and a bibliography.]

Colección de tratados históricos y vigentes, recopilados por Oscar Pérez Uribe y Eusebio A. Lugo, bajo la dirección del Subsecretario de relaciones exteriores y culto, D. Ernesto Egusquiza. . . . Asunción, Imprenta nacional, 1934. v. I: 736 p. 24 cm. Contents: América. [This collection covers treaties of Paraguay with American countries, from 1811 to date. They are arranged by the countries with which the treaties are made. Indices indicate also the chronological arrangement and the topics of the treaties.]

Unanue, San Martín y Bolívar, por Luis Alayza Paz Soldán. Lima, Librería e imprenta Gil, S. A., 1934. 555 p. plates, ports., facisms. 21½ cm. [Doctor Alayza Paz Soldán unites again, as they were in life, these three great South Americans—Bolívar, San Martín, and Unanue—the latter, physician, writer, Peruvian national hero, and ancestor of the author. The appendix contains copies of the “Nuevo día del Perú”, of which Unanue was editor, and numerous hitherto unpublished documents, as well as a brief bibliography.]

Historia sintética de la literatura uruguaya; plan del Señor Carlos Reyles aprobado por la Comisión nacional del centenario, 1830-1930. Montevideo, Alfredo Vila, editor, 1931. 3 v. [This literary history consists of numerous lectures given over the radio during the centennial celebration of Uruguay by specialists in each field of literature. The plan was organized by Carlos Reyles. Some of the greatest living Uruguayan literati contributed discussions of historical, critical, and biographical data relating to their native literature.]

Guía comercial y administrativa de Caracas y departamento Libertador, 1933 (año 1º) . . . Caracas, Lit. y tip. Vargas, 1932. 1 p.l., 280 p. fold. map. [A new guide-book and directory of Caracas, published by Dr. A. Gallizio and Dr. A. Scaparone, which contains, besides an alphabetical and an industrial directory, a description of the city, postal laws and regulations, an outline of transportation facilities, and a list of government and diplomatic officials.]

Los otros americanos, by Nina Lee Weisinger . . . and Marjorie C. Johnston. . . . Illustrated by Alberto Cugat. Garden City, New York, Doubleday, Doran & company, inc., [c. 1934] xv, [1], 247 p. front., illus., ports., maps. 19 cm. [Miss Weisinger and Miss Johnston present herewith a new elementary Spanish text-book which contains interesting descriptive material on the several Latin American Republics, easily understood by the first-year student and helpful as an introduction to the customs and life of Latin America. Numerous musical excerpts, many illustrations, brief but instructive grammar lessons, and supplementary reading suggestions all help to make it a useful textbook.]

Spanish literature in Mexican languages as a source for the study of Spanish pronunciation, by Delos Lincoln Canfield. . . . New York, Instituto de las Españas en los Estados Unidos, 1934. 257 p. 20½ cm. [A new and valuable contribution to Mexican philology, showing the reciprocal influences of Spanish and Indian languages in Mexico. The twenty-eight page bibliography includes references on Indian languages, Spanish and other pronunciation, histories and biographies.]

Ores and industry in South America, by H. Foster Bain . . . and Thomas Thornton Read. . . . Published for the Council on foreign relations. New York and London, Harper & brothers, publishers, 1934. xvi p., 1 l., 381 p. incl. front.(map.), maps. [The preface states that “This book is the outgrowth of a series of discussions held by the Minerals Study group of the Council on Foreign Relations in 1931 and 1932.” It discusses mines and the mining industry in every South American Republic and in the Guianas. A full index and bibliographical footnotes make it helpful in the study of this important industry.]

The following magazines are new or have been received in the library for the first time:

Anales de biotipología, eugenesia y medicina social; órgano de la Asociación argentina de biotipología, eugenesia y medicina social. Buenos Aires, 1934. Año 2, N° 29, 15 de septiembre 1934. 23 p. illus. 40x29 cm. Semi-monthly. Address: Alsina 1027, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Anales diplomáticos (doctrinas, conferencias, tratados, memorandums, circulares, declaraciones, discursos, mensajes, debates parlamentarios, reglamentos,

notas y otros actos de interés internacional; principalmente de las repúblicas americanas). Buenos Aires, 1934. Año I, tomo I, agosto de 1934. [40] p. 26½x18 cm. Monthly. Editor: Daniel Antokoletz, distinguished Argentine publicist. Address: Calle Monroe 2523, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Boletín de la biblioteca (Facultad de derecho y ciencias sociales, Universidad nacional de Buenos Aires). Buenos Aires, 1933. Año I, N° 4, abril 1933. [122] p. 27x18 cm. Quarterly. Editor: Enrique Arana (hijo). Address: Facultad de derecho y ciencias sociales de la Universidad nacional de Buenos Aires, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Boletín mensual del seminario de ciencias jurídicas y sociales (Facultad de derecho de la Universidad de Buenos Aires). Buenos Aires, 1934. Año III, N° 25, julio de 1934. [150] p. 25½x16 cm. Editor: Néstor Ciehero. Address: Las Heras 2214, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Boletín de la Sociedad argentina de escritores. Buenos Aires, 1934. Año III, N° 6, 1° de septiembre de 1934. [4] p. illus. (port.) 37x26 cm. Bimonthly. Address: Santa Fe 1243, Casa del teatro, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

A Ordem; órgão do Centro D. Vital. Rio de Janeiro, 1934. Anno XIV (Nova Série) N° 54, agosto, 1934. [83] p. 23x18½ cm. Monthly devoted to general subjects. Editor: Tristão de Athayde. Address: Praça 15 de Novembro, 101. Caixa postal 249. Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

Revista do Club de engenharia; órgão oficial do Club de engenharia. Rio de Janeiro, 1934. Anno I, N° 1, setembro 1934. 61 p. illus., ports., maps (1 fold.), diags. 31x22½ cm. Monthly. Editors: Dr. Mauricio Joppert da Silva, Eng. Henrique de Novaes, Eng. Ernani da Motta Rezende. Address: Avenida Rio Branco, 124-126—2° andar.

Revista do Departamento nacional da produção animal; publicação oficial do Ministério da agricultura, Rio de Janeiro, 1934. Anno I, N° 1, 1934. 84, ii p. plates (part col.) 23x16 cm. Secretário da revista: Dr. Americo Braga. Address: Instituto de biologia animal, Avenida Maracanã, 222, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil. [With the changes in the Ministério da agricultura and the extinction of the Serviço de indústria pastoril, the Departamento nacional da produção animal was created. Consequently, the "Revista de zootecnia e veterinária" was replaced by the "Revista do Departamento nacional da produção animal".]

Rotary brasileiro; publicação oficial dos Rotary Clubs do Brasil. Rio de Janeiro, 1934. Anno VIII, N° 66, abril 1934. 92 p. illus. 28½x21½ cm. Editor: Lauro Borba. Address, Rua da Alfandega, 85—4°, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

Información quincenal (del país y del extranjero, Sub-secretaría de comercio) Santiago, 1934. Año II, N° 39, 5 de septiembre de 1934. 24 p. tables. 26x18½ cm. Semi-monthly. Address: Subsecretaría de comercio, Casilla 13232, Santiago de Chile.

Boletín semanal, Dirección general de estadística. Santiago de Chile, 1934. Año I, N° 3, 14 de febrero de 1934. 1 p. tables. 29½x19 cm. Editor: Dirección general de estadística. Address: Teatinos 307, Casilla 1317, Santiago de Chile.

Asistencia; órgano oficial de la beneficencia pública en el Distrito Federal. México, 1934. Año I, N° 2, septiembre 15 de 1934. 82 p. illus., col. plate, ports. 30x20 cm. Monthly. Address: Onceles número 39, México, D. F., México.

Revista internacional de comercio y turismo; propaganda, industrias, panamericanismo, intereses continentales. Panamá, 1934. Año I, N° 1, agosto 1934. 56 p. illus., tables. 29½x22½ cm. Monthly. Editors: M. A. Mesías, Rl. Arango Valencia. Address: Panamá, R. P.

Guaranía. Asunción, 1934, Año I, N° 11, septiembre 20 de 1934. 28 p. illus. 28½x20 cm. Monthly. Editor: J. Natalicio González. Address: 14 de mayo 224, Asunción, Paraguay.

PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

SUMMARIES OF PRESIDENTIAL MESSAGES

I. MEXICO

In his message delivered before the 36th Congress which convened September 1, 1934, President Rodríguez of Mexico summarized the accomplishments of his Government during the preceding twelve months, especially the measures taken to carry out the Six-Year Plan announced last January (see BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for April 1934).

"Based on the firm foundation of the principles of the Revolution, the Six-Year Plan approved at Querétaro", he said, "has succeeded in moulding the economic and social structure of Mexico, wherein the country will be definitely guided in its institutional life on the basis of a nation-wide peace, a conscientious respect for the rights of its citizens, and a strict fulfillment of all those principles which mean progress for the Mexican people and which should be developed to their fullest extent. . . . Besides wholly completing the year's program, we have entirely emerged from the crisis which has prostrated all the world in recent times."

FINANCE

The report of the Treasury, said the President, was encouraging. Money in circulation had increased from 366,103,000 pesos to 418,300,000, of which 100,000,000 were in Bank of Mexico notes. The monetary reserve had been increased 28,300,000 pesos to 113,500,000. The Bank of Mexico continued to strengthen its position as a central bank; the National Agricultural Credit Bank was reorganized according to the law of January 24, 1934, which permitted the release of its frozen credits; all national credit institutions were united under the National Finance Corporation (see BULLETIN for October 1934). While the number of Mexican credit institutions increased, branches of three foreign banks were closed.

New capital-tax laws were passed, and six new taxes imposed—absentee (see BULLETIN for June 1934), insurance, sugar, salt, petroleum-bearing property, and railway ties. State contributions to the Federal Government, however, were reduced 20 percent, and many small taxes were lessened or suppressed. Federal revenues, which had decreased steadily since 1929, began to rise in 1933; the budget for 1934 was 22,000,000 pesos higher than that for the preceding

year, yet in spite of that fact revenues exceeded estimates. The internal public debt was reduced by 73,000,000 pesos, the greatest amount written off in any year since the revolution. Moreover, 16,600,000 pesos' worth of bonds of various denominations were amortized. The only bond issue floated during that period was the Highway Loan for the completion of the Nuevo Laredo-Mexico Highway, of which 12,000,000 pesos were spent during the year.

NATIONAL ECONOMY

The Department of National Economy was particularly active during the year. The Minimum Wage Commission was established to improve the economic condition of the least-favored classes of society, and the Law of Cooperative Societies and its regulations were issued, with the result that in a year more than 468 cooperative societies, mostly of consumers, were established. Both mining and the petroleum industry increased production; in the former the output of lead, copper, zinc, antimony, and white arsenic was particularly noteworthy. The Office of Explorations was established to study the state of these two industries, and the mining reserves were increased by 1,200,000 hectares. The nationalization of petroleum-bearing subsoil, as begun in previous administrations, was continued. The oleoduct monopoly question was solved by the promulgation of a law regulating Article 28 of the Constitution.

Problems related to the electric power called for the rewording of one paragraph of the constitution; after that had been done the revision of rates was continued, thus saving 7,000,000 pesos annually among more than 85 percent of the consumers in the Republic. By a law issued December 29, 1933, the Chief Executive was authorized to appoint a Federal Electricity Commission; steps have also been taken to form cooperative societies of power consumers.

Measures taken to attract tourists produced beneficial results; thanks to the establishment of a special office in New York and other tourist agencies, it was estimated that during the year the thousands of tourists who visited the Republic spent 145,000,000 pesos.

PUBLIC EDUCATION

The outstanding accomplishment of the Department of Public Education before the adoption of the Six-Year Plan was the granting of a charter to the National University, thus making it an independent organization, and endowing it with 10,000,000 pesos.

In carrying out the Six-Year Plan, the department increased the number of rural schools to 8,531 and established the Rural Education Technical Board. Two more cultural missions were created, bringing the number now functioning to 15. There are now more than

12,000 Federal school teachers, including those in the suburban districts of the Federal District. The President also pointed out progress in the number and equipment of vocational schools and those for laborers.

AGRICULTURE

The Department of Agriculture was completely reorganized, and the National Council of Agriculture created to coordinate agricultural activities throughout the country.

The National Irrigation Commission spent a total of 6,345,000 pesos in cooperating with several individual states for the construction of dams. More than 279,000 acres have been put under cultivation by 11,200 settlers in the ten irrigation districts. Three hundred and twenty-three cooperative societies, with 20,000 members, and 11 agricultural associations, with 360 members, have been organized.

In the Institute of Social Studies a map was made showing the density and distribution of the rural population throughout the republic, and studies have been made on the present state of agricultural settlements, the small land owner, and the standard of living and sanitary conditions in rural villages.

COMMUNICATIONS AND PUBLIC WORKS

Progress on the Nuevo Laredo-Mexico-Acapulco Highway was reported, and it was stated that 5,000 men were employed on that road alone to bring the unfinished sections between Nuevo Laredo and Mexico City to speedy completion.

Air transportation in the country is provided by 15 companies which cover a network of 9,618 miles, an increase of 2,602 miles during the past year. Landing fields have been improved, and 55 of the planes are entirely manned by native Mexicans.

LABOR

The Labor Bureau has striven to guarantee the rights of laborers, to promote labor unions, and to interpret as sympathetically as possible the Labor Law. Labor legislation included the regulation of employment agencies, hygienic conditions for workers, hazardous occupations for women and minors (see BULLETIN for December 1934), and preventive measures against accidents. Three thousand two hundred thirty-eight labor unions, with a total membership of 395,000, have been registered at the bureau.

AGRARIAN BUREAU

As an aid to the solution of the agrarian problem, the Agrarian Bureau was established by a decree of December 28, 1933. After the bureau had begun to function, a new agrarian code was promulgated with three special characteristics: simplification of procedure, general-

ization of the agrarian law to a greater number of people, and a clarification of the rights of the parties concerned (see BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for August 1934). During the period from February 20 to August 31, 1934, more than 3,000,000 acres had been adjudicated.

PUBLIC HEALTH

The Public Health Office, in continuing its program, reorganized the Sanitary Police so as to insure the control of more than 8,000 establishments dealing with foodstuffs, and created the Industrial Hygiene Service. A law coordinating the sanitary services was passed, as was a new sanitary code, for which regulations are now being prepared.—B. N.

II. PANAMA

Biennial message of the President of Panama.—"A Government which two years ago was 'ruined and burdened by onerous obligations', today is rendering efficient service to the community; has balanced its budget; has reorganized and put in order its finances; has combated fraud in the collection of its revenues; has no deficit; has sought no loans; has duly met all its current obligations; has canceled an appreciable part of its internal debt; has carried out a modest program of public works to alleviate the condition of the worker; has rendered opportune assistance to public welfare; has efficiently stimulated agriculture, industry, and commerce; has maintained constitutional order in all sections of the country; and has constantly endeavored to protect and safeguard national interests." Thus President Harmodio Arias of Panama summarized in his biennial message to the National Assembly, delivered on September 1, 1934, the achievements of his administration since it came into power on October 1, 1932.

The condition of the country, which was in the throes of the depression when Dr. Arias assumed the Presidency, did not at all presage this record of achievement. With a floating debt of three million balboas and a monthly deficit of 250,000 balboas in the budget, the Government had suspended the payment not only of salaries but also of accounts due for merchandise and services; the hospitals supported by the State could not obtain medicines or provisions, as the credit which merchants could extend was already exhausted; members of the diplomatic service had been notified that neither salaries nor expenses could be paid; the National Bank did not have liquid funds with which to meet the drafts which the Government itself had issued; and the "rent strike" by the poorer classes had initiated not only a reaction against property rights but disorder and chaos, since the strikers had assumed police powers. "The state of

our finances," the President said, "the conditions of the country, the social disturbances which seemed probable, and our absolute lack of credit, all forecast complete failure for any attempt that might be made to help matters by means of the usual system of temporary loans, which in the majority of cases only serve to postpone the solution of the problem."

President Arias attacked the problem by putting into effect a rehabilitation plan based upon a complete reorganization of public finances. Unnecessary positions were suppressed and salaries and other expenditures reduced and subjected to a strict control; the floating debt was consolidated; overdue salaries and small accounts were paid; and the national credit was reestablished by the punctual payment of accounts with local merchants. Revenues were strictly collected and an effort was made to augment them by such measures as the reduction of the tariff rate on luxury goods (thus increasing the volume of imports), the reduction of the liquor tax to avoid fraud, and a higher cigarette tax.

The fiscal reorganization was supplemented with a number of economic measures. Agriculture was given special aid as the most effective means of reducing unemployment. The Department of Agriculture was reorganized; two agricultural settlements, consisting of over 400 families, were established at Capira and Paja; and three experimental farms to which farmers may go for instruction set up at Las Tablas, David, and Santiago. Lands were acquired for small farmers by purchase or as payment of real-estate taxes in arrears, and to relieve the coffee growers of the Boquete district who were about to lose their farms, a plan was evolved by which the National Bank granted the growers loans for harvesting the crops, took charge of the sale of all the coffee produced, and paid off the creditors. Relief was also given to sugarcane growers affected by the smaller amount of cane purchased by the sugar mills. Measures were also taken for the relief of the cattle-raising industry, including negotiations for the sale of cattle to the Canal Zone.

To encourage small industries a special import tax was established on such goods as shoes, hats, macaroni and other pastes, corrugated sheet iron, lotions, candies, cheese, milk, butter, prepared meats, and lard substitutes. To aid commerce the tariff on articles intended for the tourist trade and on foreign liquors was reduced and the tax on sales to the Canal Zone eliminated. Also of great importance to the merchants of the Republic was the agreement reached between President Arias and President Roosevelt by which the United States agreed to restrict such activities in the Canal Zone as sales from the commissaries to ships in transit and the limiting of admission to restaurants, clubhouses, and moving-picture theaters in the Zone to employees of

the United States Government and the Panama Railroad Co. and their families.

The most important measure adopted by the Government to aid labor and take care of the unemployed was a public works program financed through an income tax and savings on ordinary governmental expenditures. Streets and public buildings were repaired, and school-houses, markets, roads, and bridges built in Colón, Panama City, and the interior. Measures of a general character taken as part of the economic reconstruction plan included the declaration of a partial moratorium to suspend foreclosure sales in certain cases, the reduction of the interest rate charged by banks from 8 or 9 percent to 6 percent, the lowering of gas and electricity rates, loans by the National Bank against credits held by the borrower against the Government, acceptance by the bank of its mortgage bonds and Government bonds in payment of pending debts, and the establishment of a savings bank with an initial capital of 150,000 balboas which became necessary since the branches of foreign banks had practically suspended their small loan operations.

President Arias believes that the country is now entering a period of recovery which will be slow and modest in proportions but nevertheless effective. His optimism and confidence in the future is, however, tempered with admonitions against deviation from the regime of strict economy which has been begun and against Utopian schemes which can never be executed. "We must not lose sight of the fact," he said, "that even though something has been accomplished there is still much more to be done. Together with this hopeful and promising picture of a less difficult future there comes to mind the spectacle of many workers still unemployed, of unfortunate persons who try with dignity to hide their misfortunes, of many children who have no opportunity of going to school, of public and private employees receiving a mere pittance, of our evident backwardness in agriculture and industry, and of many other problems involving human solidarity or social welfare."—G. A. S.

THE NATIONAL ECONOMIC COUNCIL OF CHILE

On October 24, 1934, reports Hon. Edward H. Dow, consul general of the United States in Santiago, the Chilean Government issued a decree providing for the creation of a National Economic Council, an organization which is to coordinate the initiatives and procedures of the Executive Government in their relations with economic and financial activities. A main purpose sought is the strengthening of productive sources of wealth by means of taking adequate advantage of

the present situation of Chile. The organization will be formed by the joint efforts of the Ministries of Finance, Foreign Relations and Commerce, Development, Agriculture, and Labor. There will be an advisory commission which will meet at least once a month.

The new Council will have the advice of a committee composed of the following officials: the Superintendent of Banks; Superintendent of Insurance, Corporations and Stock Exchanges; Presidents of the Central Bank of Chile, of the Institute of Mortgage Credit, of the National Savings Bank; the Director of the Nitrate and Iodine Sales Corporation; Director of State Railways, and the Presidents of the Chambers of Commerce in Santiago and Valparaiso. This advisory committee will also include ten representatives of the Federation of Industry and Commerce.

With respect to this last group of ten persons, these have been selected to represent the following organizations, respectively: National Association of Agriculture; southern agricultural associations; Association for the Development of Industry; the Chamber of Commerce of Chile at Santiago; the Central Chamber of Commerce at Valparaiso; National Mining Association; Chilean Retailers Chamber of Commerce; Secretariat of Retail Commerce; Transportation Association; and Employers Union of Industry and Commerce of Chile.

AGRICULTURAL CREDIT IN GUATEMALA

An agricultural credit department has been established in the Central Bank of Guatemala which is to grant loans for the purchase of seeds, fertilizers, agricultural implements, and machinery; for clearing land for cultivation; for the construction and repair of agricultural works; and for the planting, cultivation, and harvesting of coffee, bananas, sugarcane, tobacco, corn, wheat, rice, beans, cacao, cotton, and rannic. The new department is also authorized to establish and manage warehouses for agricultural products, and make loans to sheep and cattle raisers. The loans will be made in open account, the rate of interest will be 6 percent per annum, and the loan periods will range from 6 months to a maximum of one year in the case of loans for the cultivation of corn, wheat, rice, beans, and bananas, and 5 years in the case of other crops.

NECROLOGY

EMILIANO GONZÁLEZ NAVERO.—A former President of Paraguay, Emiliano González Navero, died on October 18, 1934, in his 74th year. Señor González had not only been prominent in the Liberal Party, which he helped to found, but also held many government positions. Before beginning his political career, he had been judge of the lower courts and later a member of the Superior Tribunal of Justice. In 1895 his political career was begun with his election as senator; ten years later he became Minister of Finance. In 1905 also he was elected Vice-President of the Republic, becoming President in 1908 to complete the unexpired term of his predecessor. He served again, as Provisional President, for several months in 1912. Before retiring to private life some years ago, he had served another term as senator, followed by a period in the cabinet, in which he held the portfolio of War and the Navy.

DR. MARTÍN F. SOSA.—After an operation in a New York hospital Dr. Martín Felipe Sosa, Comptroller General of the Republic of Panama, died on October 26, 1934. Appointed by Dr. Harmodio Arias soon after he assumed the Presidency on October 1, 1932, Dr. Martín F. Sosa had discharged his difficult post in a manner which compelled recognition from the whole country. "It is seldom that people are so unanimous," said the *Star and Herald* of Panama, "as were Panamanians yesterday in regretting the untimely passing of the young man who was considered one of the mainstays of the Arias Administration and who in two years forged from a position of virtual political obscurity to that of one of the most distinguished members of the government of the Republic." In recognition of his services the National Government issued an executive resolution regretting the passing of this highly esteemed official, recommending his civic virtues to future generations, and ordering that the national flag be hoisted at half mast over all public buildings throughout the Republic. Official, political, and social institutions joined in the general expressions of mourning. At the time of his death Dr. Sosa was thirty-nine years of age. He was a graduate of Yale and Columbia Universities and before returning to Panama had been associated with the Guaranty Trust Company of New York.

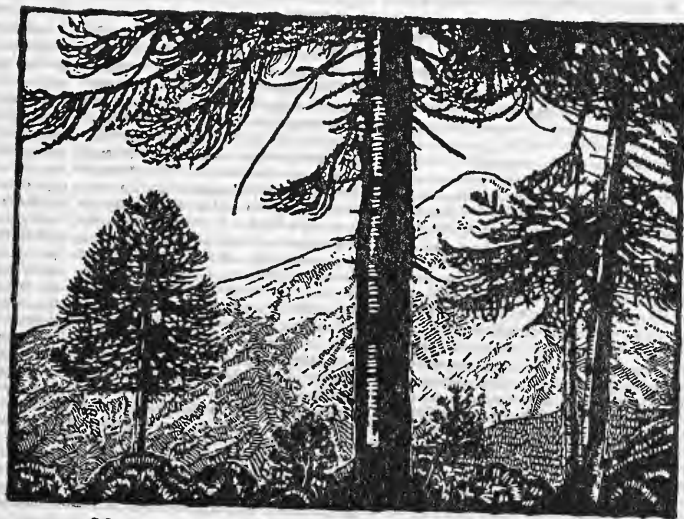
VÍCTOR MERCANTE.—One of the Argentine delegates to the Second Inter-American Conference on Education which met at Santiago,

Chile, in September 1934, Señor Víctor Mercante, died suddenly on September 20, 1934, while crossing the Andes on his way home from the meetings. Señor Mercante had an enviable reputation as an educator and psychologist not only throughout the Americas, but also in Europe. His abilities had been recognized in his own country, where he had held such high educational positions as Director General of Instruction, dean of the School of Educational Sciences (which he founded) in the University of La Plata, director of the Normal School, and member of the National Council of Education. For nearly 30 years he had been publishing studies in education and psychology which won him fame and honor. His unexpected death at the age of 64 is a great loss to the cause of education.



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MOUNT LANIN IN THE ARGENTINE ANDES

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D.C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

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Photograph by Underwood & Underwood.

HIS EXCELLENCY SEÑOR DON RAFAEL BRACHE.

Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the Dominican Republic to the United States; member of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.

For the second time in his diplomatic career, Sr. Brache represents his government as Minister in Washington, having presented his letters of credence to President Roosevelt December 14, 1934. He is also a member of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. Born in the town of Moca, July 8, 1888, Rafael Brache moved as a boy with his family to La Vega, where he received his education and began his public career as chairman of the municipal council at the youthful age of 21. In 1914 he was elected to the Constitutional Assembly and shortly thereafter became Chief of the Bureau of Internal Revenue of the National Bank. An appointment as Consul General in London, in 1915, was followed by a promotion to the post of Chargé d'Affaires in the same capital. Later official positions held by Sr. Brache were Director General of Immigration and Representative from the Province of La Vega. He was delegate to the Conferences of the Interparliamentary Union which assembled in Washington, Ottawa, and Paris. In 1930-31, Sr. Brache held the post of Minister in Washington and represented the Dominican Republic on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.



Vol. LXIX

FEBRUARY 1935

No. 2

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION AND THE CONCLUSIONS OF THE SEVENTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN STATES

By WILLIAM MANGER, Ph.D.

Counselor, Pan American Union

THE Seventh International Conference of American States adjourned at Montevideo on December 26, 1933. In the year that has since elapsed the Pan American Union has been actively engaged in giving effect to the conclusions reached by the delegates. Six conventions and one protocol were signed, and ninety-five resolutions approved, many of them entrusting specific functions to the Pan American Union. In anticipation of the Conference the Union formulated the program and the regulations; and in addition, a handbook for the use of the delegates was compiled and other documentary material was prepared and distributed among the Governments and the delegates.

In presenting this statement of the activities of the Union with respect to the conclusions reached at Montevideo, the report may conveniently be divided into sections, as follows:

I. Resolutions affecting the administrative organization of the Pan American Union.

II. Resolutions providing for special conferences and technical commissions.

III. Resolutions providing for special inquiries and investigations.

IV. Miscellaneous activities.

V. Deposit of ratifications of conventions.

I. ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

A number of resolutions adopted at the Seventh International Conference of American States contemplate the assumption of additional duties by or the creation of new offices in the Pan American Union. Some of these resolutions also contain provisions which

extend beyond the creation of new functions for the Union, but for convenience they are grouped together under the general head of Administrative Organization of the Union. These resolutions and the steps taken in fulfillment thereof may be summarized as follows:

1. CODIFICATION OF INTERNATIONAL LAW

In a comprehensive resolution, the Conference established methods for carrying on the future work of codifying international law. In its broad outlines, the resolution provides for the maintenance of the International Commission of Jurists created by the Rio Conference of 1906, to be composed of jurists named by each government; for the creation by each government of a national commission of codification of international law; and for the establishment of a commission of experts, consisting of seven jurists, with the duty of organizing and preparing the work of codification.

The resolution further provides that the Pan American Union shall establish a juridical section of a purely administrative character, which shall serve as the general secretariat, to keep the files and correspondence of the codifying bodies; that the Commission of Experts shall be constituted through the intermediary of the Governing Board; that the first meeting of the Commission of Experts shall take place as soon as possible at the Pan American Union; and that, at the proper time, the Governing Board shall call meetings of the International Commission of Jurisconsults.

Pursuant to this resolution the office of the Assistant Director and Secretary of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union has been designated to assume the duties of the general secretariat and juridical section contemplated by the Montevideo resolution. This office has also communicated with the Governments relative to the lists of persons from whom the members of the Commission of Experts shall be elected. Up to the present time the following Governments have submitted the names of candidates for membership on this Commission: Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Dominican Republic, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, United States, Venezuela.

As the resolution provides that the Commission shall be selected from lists submitted by *all* Governments, no further action can be taken on this resolution until the remaining Governments submit the names of their candidates.

2. ESTABLISHMENT OF A CENTER OF INTER-AMERICAN BIBLIOGRAPHIC COOPERATION

A comprehensive resolution on bibliographic cooperation was adopted at Montevideo requesting the following of the Pan American Union: (1) the appointment of a committee by the Governing Board to prepare a critical and classified bibliography of works published in

all languages that have to do with America; (2) the use of the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union as an organ of inter-American bibliographic information; (3) the organization by the Union of a special service for establishing a directory of American libraries, authors, and specialists; (4) the establishment of an obligatory service of exchange between the official libraries of the American Republics, the distribution in this service to be made by the Pan American Union; (5) the promotion by the Pan American Union of the interchange of scientific and literary publications, and of newspapers, magazines, and other means of technical-intellectual improvement; (6) the convening of the Inter-American Bibliographic Conference as soon as possible in whatever place may be decided upon, the technical studies prepared for such conference to be submitted to the Pan American Union for transmission to the interested parties and to the Secretary General of the Conference; and (7) the action of the Library of the Pan American Union as a center of coordination and cooperation in the work of inter-American bibliography, under a plan to be formulated by the Governing Board.

The Permanent Committee on Bibliography of the Governing Board has undertaken to give effect to the provisions of the resolution adopted at Montevideo. To this end, the committee has recommended that National Committees on Bibliography be appointed in those countries where such action has not yet been taken, and the committee is also enlisting the cooperation of the Inter-American Bibliographic Association. A project of program has been formulated for the Inter-American Bibliographic Conference, which was scheduled to meet in November 1934, but which was postponed. The Permanent Committee is now giving consideration to a new date and place of meeting of the Conference.

Through the Division of Intellectual Cooperation the Pan American Union has taken steps to put into effect the resolution on technical and scientific interchange, and through the office of the Foreign Trade Adviser inquiries have been made of cooperative organizations in all the countries, members of the Union, preparatory to submitting to the Governing Board a report on the establishment of an Inter-American Institute of Cooperativism and Syndicalism, or of a division of this nature in the Pan American Union.

II. SPECIAL CONFERENCES AND TECHNICAL COMMISSIONS

The Montevideo Conference made provision for the convocation of a number of special conferences and congresses and the appointment of a series of technical commissions. With respect to many of these, the Pan American Union was entrusted with the designation of the date and place of meeting, or was required to take some other action. The activities of the Pan American Union with respect to these special conferences and commissions have been as follows:

1. INTER-AMERICAN AVIATION COMMISSION

The Seventh International Conference of American States recommended that a commission of experts, to meet at the time and place to be decided by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, study the means of still further accelerating inter-American aviation by the establishment of a continuous line of radio stations, beacons, and aerodromes and determine what additional methods may be devised to bring about more rapid inter-American aerial communication facilities.

At the meeting of April 4, 1934, the Governing Board, considering that Panama is the center at which many existing air-lines now converge, recommended that the Inter-American Aviation Commission meet at the city of Panama. This suggestion was accepted by the Government of Panama. It was originally expected that the Commission would meet in January or February 1935, but the Government of Panama has not yet set the date on which the commission shall convene.

2. INTER-AMERICAN COMMISSION ON MONUMENTS TO AVIATION
PIONEERS

A resolution adopted at Montevideo recommended that a monument to the aviation pioneers of America be erected by the Governments of the American Republics on the aviation field at La Paz, Bolivia. The Pan American Union was requested to invite the Governments to designate representatives who, constituting a commission with its seat at Washington, should carry forward this undertaking.

Pursuant to this resolution the Pan American Union in June 1934 communicated with the Governments of the American Republics relative to the designation of members to serve on this commission. Up to the present time only one country has named its member, the Government of Mexico having appointed Gen. Juan F. Azcárate.

3. INTER-AMERICAN COMMISSION ON BILLS OF EXCHANGE, DRAFTS AND
CHECKS

Another resolution adopted at Montevideo recommended that the Governing Board of the Pan American Union appoint a commission of five members to formulate a project on bills of exchange, drafts, and checks, the report of this committee to be submitted to the Governing Board.

In view of the extensive studies already made on this subject, the Governing Board, at the session of April 4, 1934, authorized the Director General to prepare, through the appropriate office of the Pan American Union, a report on the studies and projects already

made, this report to be submitted to the Governments with the request that they indicate the changes that should be made in the project in order to make it acceptable. This report is now in course of preparation and, upon completion, will be forwarded to the Governments, members of the Union.

4. PAN AMERICAN COMMERCIAL CONFERENCE OF BUENOS AIRES

In the resolution providing for the convocation of the Pan American Commercial Conference of Buenos Aires, the Pan American Union was requested to compile documentary material on the topics of the program and to forward this material to the Governments.

Pursuant to this recommendation the Pan American Union has compiled a two-volume report containing memoranda on the nine topics of the agenda of the Commercial Conference.

Copies of this report have been forwarded to the Governments, members of the Pan American Union, as well as to the Organizing Committee of the Conference at Buenos Aires.

The Conference is scheduled to convene on March 20, 1935.

5. INTER-AMERICAN COMMISSION ON CUSTOMS PROCEDURE AND PORT FORMALITIES AND CONSULAR REGULATIONS

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union was requested to appoint a commission to frame a preliminary project on uniform customs procedure and port formalities and to submit its report to the Governing Board.

In considering the action to be taken on this resolution, the Governing Board had before it the fact that in November 1929, a Commission met at Washington and formulated a project of convention on Customs Procedure and Port Formalities. In view of the existence of this convention, the Governing Board at the session of April 4, 1934, reached the conclusion that before proceeding to a revision thereof, it would be advisable to transmit the instrument to the Governments and to request from them an expression of opinion as to the changes or modifications that should be made therein. The Board also adopted the recommendation that there be included in the report to be drawn up by the Pan American Union, the conclusions of the Pan American Commission on Consular Procedure which met at Washington in 1927.

The Pan American Union prepared such a report, in which were embodied the results of the two Commissions on Consular Procedure and on Customs Procedure and Port Formalities. This document was forwarded to the Governments, members of the Union, as well as to commercial associations in all the Republics, with the request that any comments or observations be transmitted to the Pan American Union on or before November 1, 1934.

At the meeting of December 5, 1934, the Governing Board proceeded with the appointment of the commission contemplated by the resolution of the Montevideo Conference. This commission is constituted as follows:

Dr. J. Richling, Minister of Uruguay, Chairman; Mr. Paulo G. Hasslocher, of Brazil; Mr. Fernando Illanes Benítez, of Chile; Mr. José M. Sáenz, of Colombia; Dr. Pedro Aguiar, of Cuba; Mr. Plinio B. Pina Chevalier, of the Dominican Republic; Mr. F. Jaime Gaxiola, of Mexico; Mr. Herbert Hengstler, of the United States.

The report of the committee will be submitted to the Governing Board.

6. PAN AMERICAN FINANCIAL CONFERENCE

The Montevideo Conference adopted a resolution recommending that the Third Pan American Financial Conference be convened to study the points included in the project submitted by the delegation of Mexico to the Seventh International Conference of American States. The resolution furthermore designated the city of Santiago, Chile, as the seat of the Conference and requested the Government of Chile to issue the invitations. At the same time the Pan American Union was asked to undertake the distribution among the countries, members of the Union, of the studies presented by the delegation of Mexico.

Pursuant to this resolution, the Pan American Union received from the Government of Mexico copies of the projects submitted at Montevideo and these in turn were forwarded to the Governments of the countries, members of the Union. No action has as yet been taken by the Government of Chile toward calling the Conference.

7. INTER-AMERICAN CONGRESS ON HOUSING

The Montevideo Conference urged that Governments take into consideration the social, economic and hygienic factors in the planning, building and rebuilding of their cities; that individual home ownership be promoted; and that the growth of slum districts be avoided. Provision also was made for an Inter-American Congress on Housing and the Pan American Union was entrusted with the preparation of the program and the determination of the date and place of meeting.

Pursuant to this resolution, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union at the session of April 4, 1934, designated Buenos Aires as the seat of the Conference, the precise date to be determined by the Government of Argentina. On May 2, 1934, the Governing Board approved a project of program for the Inter-American Congress on Housing which was transmitted to the Government of Argentina

for use in drawing up the definitive agenda of the Conference. The date of the Conference has not yet been fixed by the Argentine Government.

8. INTER-AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON INDIAN LIFE

The Montevideo Conference entrusted to the Pan American Union the organization of an Inter-American Conference of Experts on Indian Life, to meet at Mexico City, the results of the Conference to be submitted to the Eighth International Conference of American States.

Inquiry has been made of the Government of Mexico to determine the wishes of that Government with respect to the date of holding the Conference.

9. INTER-AMERICAN COMMISSION ON INDUSTRIAL PROPERTY

By the terms of the resolution on industrial property adopted at Montevideo, the Governments of the American Republics were urged to appoint representatives to serve on the Inter-American Commission on Industrial Property, and the Commission was requested to draw up a project of convention to be submitted to the Third Pan American Financial Conference or to a special conference to be called for the purpose of considering this subject.

The Pan American Union has communicated with the Governments relative to the appointment of members to serve on this Commission and has also kept in touch with the Inter-American Trade-Mark Bureau at Habana which serves as the secretariat of the Commission. The following members thus far have been appointed by the respective Governments to serve on the commission:

Bolivia: Walter A. Méndez	Guatemala: Diego Polanco, Jr.
Brazil: Carlos da Silva Costa	Haiti: François Benjamin
Chile: Claudio Aliaga Cobo	Honduras: Augusto C. Coello
Colombia: Francisco de Angulo B.	Mexico: Emilio de la Parra
Costa Rica: Manuel González Zeledón	Nicaragua: Henrique Caldera
Cuba: Carlos Claudio Gárate Brú	Panama: Carlos Icaza A.
Dominican Republic: Francisco Henríquez Ureña	Paraguay: José Antonio Pérez, Jr.
Ecuador: Enrique Coloma Silva	United States: Edward S. Rogers
El Salvador: Ricardo Morcira	Venezuela: J. M. Hurtado Machado

The Pan American Union is informed by the Secretary of the Commission, Dr. Juan Luis Rodríguez, that a project on the protection of industrial property has been formulated and will be circulated among the members of the Commission for examination and comment. On the basis of the replies received a decision will be made with respect to the convocation of the special conference referred to in the Montevideo resolution.

10. INTER-AMERICAN COMMISSION ON INTELLECTUAL PROPERTY
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The Seventh International Conference of American States recommended the creation of a commission of five members to prepare a preliminary draft convention on the protection of intellectual property, four of the members to be appointed by the Governments of the countries in whose capitals Pan American Conventions on Intellectual Property were concluded and the fifth member to be designated by the Government of Uruguay. The Pan American Union has communicated with the Governments of Mexico, Brazil, Argentina, Cuba, and Uruguay relative to the designation of members to serve on this Commission. Up to the present time the following appointments have been made:

Dr. José G. Antuña, of Uruguay;
Dr. Basilio Vadillo, Minister of Mexico to Uruguay; and
Dr. Luis Rodríguez Embil, Minister of Cuba to Uruguay.

Under date of August 22, 1934, the Pan American Union received a communication from the Minister of Uruguay at Washington in which he stated that his Government had decided to defer for a short time convening the Commission. Up to the present time no date has been fixed for the meeting.

11. INTER-AMERICAN COMMISSION ON POWERS OF ATTORNEY AND
FOREIGN COMPANIES

A resolution along the same lines as the foregoing recommended that the Governing Board of the Pan American Union appoint a commission on the simplification and uniformity of powers of attorney and the juridical personality of foreign companies.

At the meeting of the Governing Board held on November 7, 1934, the committee was appointed with the following members:

Dr. Pedro M. Arcaya, Minister of Venezuela;
Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, Minister of Panama;
M. Albert Blanchet, Minister of Haiti;
Dr. E. Gil Borges, Assistant Director of the Pan American Union; and
Mr. David E. Grant, of the American Bar Association.

The committee had before it the report and project on standard rules governing powers of attorney formulated by a committee of the Section of International and Comparative Law of the American Bar Association, and a descriptive and comparative study of the legislation and treaties on the juridical personality of foreign companies, prepared by Dr. Gil Borges.

On the subject of powers of attorney the committee is formulating a project, which will be submitted to the Governing Board.

At the meeting of the Governing Board held on December 5, 1934, the committee submitted the following project on the juridical personality of foreign companies:

Companies constituted in accordance with the laws of one of the Contracting States, and which have their seats in its territory, shall be able to exercise in the territories of the other Contracting States, notwithstanding the fact that they do not have in such territories a permanent establishment, branch, or social representation, any commercial activity which is not contrary to the laws of such States and to enter all appearances in the courts as plaintiffs or defendants, provided they comply with the laws of the country in question.

The Governing Board resolved that this project be referred to the Governments for study and comment, and that the Governments be requested to transmit their opinions prior to February 1, 1935, following which the definitive project will be formulated. Under date of December 6, 1934, the report and project of the committee were forwarded to the Governments through their representatives on the Governing Board.

12. INTER-AMERICAN CONGRESS ON RURAL LIFE; SECOND INTER-AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON AGRICULTURE

A resolution of the Seventh Conference recommended that the Governing Board of the Pan American Union consider the advisability of an Inter-American Congress on Rural Life; and also that the Union undertake studies which would call attention to the problems relating to rural colonization and the creation of small agricultural holdings.

In considering this resolution the Governing Board had before it the fact that the Second Inter-American Conference on Agriculture will meet at Mexico in 1935 and that an opportunity would be afforded at that time to consider questions relating to rural life. Accordingly, the Board recommended that in the program of the Agricultural Conference of Mexico a special section be included covering the problems of rural life. In anticipation of the Conference, documentary material will be prepared to facilitate the consideration of the topics on the program.

The Government of Mexico has appointed an organizing committee for the Second Inter-American Conference on Agriculture, the membership of which is as follows:

Mr. Julio Riquelme Inda, President

Mr. Antonio Rivas Tagle, Secretary

Dr. José Figueroa

Mr. Sergio Barojas

The Conference will meet at Mexico City in September or October 1935, and active preparations for the gathering are being made by the organizing committee, in close cooperation with the Pan American Union.

13. INTER-AMERICAN COMMISSION ON THE ORGANIZATION OF AN
INSTITUTE OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

In the resolution adopted at Montevideo on the results of the Congress of Rectors, Deans, and Educators, a recommendation was incorporated providing that, at the proper time, an Inter-American Institute of Scientific Research be established, the organization and seat of which will be determined by a commission of experts to be convened by the Pan American Union. In considering this particular recommendation, the Governing Board was of the opinion that, because of the prevailing economic situation, the present is not an opportune moment to consider the establishment of the Institute. However, in view of the desirability of developing the closest possible cooperative relations among the universities and scientific institutions of America, the Governing Board resolved that the appropriate Division of the Pan American Union should stimulate, by every possible means, such cooperative relations. The Division of Intellectual Cooperation of the Pan American Union is now engaged in giving effect to this recommendation.

Steps were also taken by the Pan American Union to put into effect the resolutions of the Seventh Conference concerning the Inter-American Bibliographic Conference, the Inter-American Commission on Fluvial Navigation, and the Third Pan American Red Cross Conference.

III. SPECIAL INVESTIGATIONS

In the preceding section relating to special conferences and commissions, reference has been made to a series of studies and investigations which the Pan American Union has undertaken pursuant to the resolutions adopted at the Seventh International Conference of American States. In addition, the Pan American Union has undertaken a number of additional studies and inquiries with a view to giving effect to the resolutions adopted at Montevideo. These are as follows:

1. RELATION OF PAN AMERICAN ORGANS TO OTHER ENTITIES

By this resolution the Eighth International Conference of American States is entrusted with the determination of the principles that should govern the admission of observers of organizations or of non-American States to the international conferences as well as the determination of the status and prerogatives of such observers; and also is asked to study the method of cooperation of the Pan American organization with other parts of the world. The Pan American Union is requested to submit to the Eighth Conference suggestions as to the steps to be taken to insure the cooperation of the international conferences and of the Pan American Union with non-American organizations and States.

With a view to giving effect to this resolution, a special committee of the Governing Board has been appointed to study the question and formulate suggestions to be submitted to the Eighth International Conference of American States. This committee is made up of the Ambassadors of Argentina and Brazil and the Ministers of Guatemala and Colombia.

2. RATIFICATION OF TREATIES AND CONVENTIONS AND ADHERENCE OF NONSIGNATORY STATES TO PAN AMERICAN CONVENTIONS

The Conference adopted two resolutions relative to the ratification of treaties and conventions signed at Pan American conferences, which call upon the Pan American Union to take steps to secure such ratification. In another resolution on the adherence of nonsignatory states to Pan American conventions, the Pan American Union was requested to study the advisability of permitting the adherence of states which are not signatories to conventions signed at the International Conferences of American States and which are not members of the Pan American Union.

In considering these resolutions the Governing Board of the Pan American Union adopted a comprehensive program of action which may be briefly summarized as follows:

(a) The preparation of the program of each International Conference of American States shall begin immediately after the adjournment of the preceding conference, so that the program and the projects formulated on the several topics of the agenda may be drafted with thoroughness and care. The committees on program and regulations of the Eighth Conference have already been appointed.

(b) With respect to securing the ratification of treaties and conventions signed at Pan American conferences, the Pan American Union shall transmit semiannually to the Governments a chart showing the status of such treaties and conventions and shall also inquire the objections, if any, which the Governments may have to the treaties and conventions open to their ratification or adherence, or the modifications which would make ratification or adherence possible. Such a chart has been prepared on the basis of information in possession of the Pan American Union on December 31, 1934.

(c) With respect to the adherence of nonsignatory states, the Governing Board reached the conclusion that treaties and conventions that hereafter may be signed at International Conferences of American States shall be open to the adherence of states members of the Union that have not signed; and, insofar as concerns states not members of the Union, treaties and conventions shall be open to the adherence of such states when it is so stipulated in the respective instrument.

(d) The Governing Board, furthermore, urged the Governments to organize Pan American Committees as provided for by resolutions of

previous Conferences or to undertake the reorganization of the Committees in those cases in which they are not now functioning.

3. MULTILATERAL COMMERCIAL TREATIES

The Seventh International Conference of American States referred to the Pan American Union a project relative to multilateral commercial treaties with the recommendation that it be deposited with the Union and opened to the adherence of all countries. The project contemplated the signing of an agreement whereby the parties undertake not to invoke the obligations of the most-favored-nation clause for the purpose of obtaining advantages enjoyed by parties to multilateral economic conventions of general applicability, which include a trade area of substantial size, have as their objective the liberalization and promotion of international trade or other international economic intercourse, and are open to adoption by all countries. However, the parties to the agreement may demand the fulfillment of the most-favored-nation clause insofar as each reciprocally accords in fact the benefits required by the economic agreement, the advantage of which it claims.

The Supervisory Committee of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union drew up an agreement which was deposited in the Pan American Union and opened for signature on July 15, 1934. Certified copies of the agreement have been sent to all the governments of the world. Up to the present time, the agreement has been signed ad referendum by the following Governments:

United States: September 20, 1934

Panama: September 29, 1934

Cuba: October 16, 1934

4. PROMOTION OF TOURIST TRAVEL

The Pan American Union, by the terms of the resolution on tourist travel, is requested to formulate a plan for the promotion of tourist travel, involving the cooperation of the Governments, either directly or through tourist bureaus or commissions, and of transportation companies, Chambers of Commerce, and similar institutions.

To carry out the purposes of this resolution there has been created in the Pan American Union a special Travel Division which will maintain close touch with transportation companies, tourist commissions, and other organizations interested in tourist travel and endeavor by every possible means to stimulate the movement of tourists between the American Republics. This Division has been established with the cooperation of the transportation lines operating between the nations of America.

The Division will issue special travel literature on the countries, members of the Pan American Union; prepare travel articles on the points of interest in the American Republics which will be sent to

an extensive list of newspapers and magazines; and, by means of personal contacts and correspondence, endeavor to promote travel in the American Continent. The office of the Division has been established in one of the principal corridors of the Pan American Union, where it will be visible to the thousands of visitors who annually visit the building. A collection of travel posters of many of the countries, members of the Union, has also been placed on display in one of the main corridors of the building.

5. INTER-AMERICAN COMMERCIAL ARBITRATION COMMISSION

In the resolution on Commercial Arbitration the Seventh International Conference of American States recommended that an agency be appointed to assume the responsibility of establishing an inter-American system of commercial arbitration.

Pursuant to this recommendation, the Governing Board, at the session of April 4, 1934, adopted a resolution requesting the American Arbitration Association and the Council on Inter-American Relations jointly to undertake the extension of a system of inter-American commercial arbitration as contemplated by the resolution of the Montevideo Conference. This invitation was accepted and the Inter-American Commercial Arbitration Commission created. The Commission will consist of 50 or 60 members, including representatives of each of the American Republics, and will establish in each country Inter-American Tribunals of Arbitration, where business men will be assured of impartial arbitrators and of a standard of procedure for the speedy and economic settlement of controversies. Committees will be organized in each Republic to cooperate with existing local trade and commercial organizations in the development of such tribunals. Mr. Spruille Braden has been named chairman of the Commission.

7. COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIGHTHOUSE

In two resolutions on the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse, the Conference at Montevideo recommended that the Governing Board of the Pan American Union continue its activities in favor of the Lighthouse until the project shall have been realized; that the Governments continue to give this project their decided support; and that the Governments contribute their quotas toward the construction of the Lighthouse.

The Permanent Committee of the Governing Board on the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse has studied the action to be taken on these resolutions. At the meeting of the Board held on November 7, 1934, the Committee submitted a report which was unanimously approved and which, among other things, recommended:

1. That national committees on the Columbus Lighthouse be appointed in those countries in which they have not yet been

designated, and that where necessary a reorganization be undertaken of those committees already appointed.

2. That these committees consider ways and means of raising funds in their respective countries to be utilized in the construction of the Memorial, and to inform the committee of the plans that they may evolve.

3. That the Governments, members of the Pan American Union, be asked to indicate the sums they will be willing to contribute to the erection of the Memorial, and when these sums will be made available.

This report was transmitted to the Governments, through their respective representatives on the Governing Board, under date of November 9, 1934.

9. IDEAS OF BOLÍVAR

By this resolution of the Montevideo Conference, the Pan American Union was authorized to prepare a compilation which should represent the ideas first expressed by Bolívar and later by other statesmen, by congresses, by juriconsults, and by other distinguished people with reference to the creation of an American League of Nations and of a Permanent American Tribunal of International Justice.

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union, considering that the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace had already published the correspondence of agents of the Government of the United States in Latin America during the independence period and up to 1860, as well as the results of the Pan American Conferences up to the Sixth, requested the Carnegie Endowment to continue the publication of material along these lines including: (a) Documentation relative to the ideas of Bolívar on the American Confederation and the initiative and subsequent plan for an American League of Nations and a Permanent American Court of International Justice; (b) the documentation relative to the Inter-American Conferences held from 1826 to 1889; and (c) the documentation relative to the Seventh International Conference of American States.

At the same time, the Governments, members of the Pan American Union, as well as private organizations and individuals, were requested to send to the Pan American Union documentation relative to the suggestions made in the Montevideo resolution.

The Carnegie Endowment has generously agreed to undertake the compilation and publication of the material referred to in the foregoing resolution of the Governing Board. The publication of this documentation will constitute a real contribution to these important phases of inter-American cooperation and will represent a further evidence of the interest of the Carnegie Endowment in the whole field of inter-American relations.

10. ARCHAEOLOGY

The resolution on archaeology adopted at the Seventh Conference requested the Pan American Union to continue the publication of the annual record of progress made in the field of archaeology on the American Continent. Pursuant to this recommendation and resolutions of similar character adopted at previous conferences, the Pan American Union publishes annually a record of the progress in archaeological research in the Republics of the American Continent. This material is widely distributed among scientific organizations and archaeologists in the countries members of the Pan American Union.

The Union has also undertaken to compile the legislation of the several countries relating to the protection of archaeological remains and the conduct of scientific investigations. It is believed that this compilation, when completed, will be helpful to scientists and students throughout the continent.

Copies of the resolution adopted at Montevideo have been sent by the Division of Intellectual Cooperation of the Pan American Union to archaeological and historical societies and museums throughout the continent.

11. TREATY FOR THE PROTECTION OF ARTISTIC AND SCIENTIFIC INSTITUTIONS AND HISTORICAL MONUMENTS (ROERICH PACT)

A resolution adopted at Montevideo recommended to the Governments of America the signature of the project for the protection of scientific and cultural monuments.

On the basis of the pact drawn up by the Roerich Museum, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union formulated, at the session of April 4, 1934, an inter-American convention which has been forwarded to the Governments, members of the Union, with the recommendation that their representatives on the Board be given plenary powers to sign. It is proposed that the pact shall be signed on April 14, 1935, or some prior date, if all the members of the Board shall have received their plenary powers.

Up to the present time the Pan American Union has been informed that representatives of the following Governments have been authorized to sign the pact for the Protection of Artistic and Scientific Institutions and Historical Monuments: Ecuador, Guatemala, Panama, United States, Uruguay. The plenary powers of the foregoing countries have been deposited with the Pan American Union. The Government of Honduras, under date of July 24, 1934, informed the Union that that Government had accepted the treaty.

Copies of the resolution adopted at Montevideo were also sent to archaeological and historical societies and museums throughout the continent by the Division of Intellectual Cooperation of the Pan American Union.

12. PROTECTION OF MOVABLE MONUMENTS

A resolution adopted at Montevideo referred to the consideration of the Governments of America a project of treaty for the protection and preservation of movable monuments of historic value. On the basis of this project, a committee of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union formulated a treaty which was deposited in the Union on July 15, 1934, certified copies of which were sent to all the Governments of the American Republics.

A resolution of the Governing Board fixed April 14, 1935, as the date on which the treaty should be signed, or an earlier date if all the members of the Board should receive plenary powers. Up to the present time the Pan American Union has been informed that representatives of El Salvador and Guatemala have been authorized to sign the treaty.

The Division of Intellectual Cooperation of the Pan American Union also sent copies of this resolution to archaeological and historical societies and museums throughout the continent.

13. PURE FOOD AND DRUG REGULATIONS

A resolution of the Montevideo Conference entrusted to the Pan American Sanitary Bureau the distribution of pure food and drug regulations of the American Republics, the distribution of the publication on a model milk ordinance, and the study of uniform Pan American types and standards for pure food products.

The Pan American Sanitary Bureau sent letters to the directing heads of public health of the American Republics calling attention to this resolution and enclosing the publication entitled, *Ordenanza Modelo para Leche*. At the same time, attention was invited to the Model Food and Drug Act enclosed in the Proceedings of the Seventh Pan American Sanitary Conference.

At the Ninth Pan American Sanitary Conference, which met at Buenos Aires from November 12 to 22, 1934, a resolution was adopted recommending that the Pan American Sanitary Bureau undertake a progressive study of pure food and drug regulations and, if it deems it advisable, name a commission of experts on the subject, the results of the study to be submitted to the next Sanitary Conference. The Conference also adopted a resolution on milk, endorsing the principles contained in the model milk ordinance distributed by the Sanitary Bureau.

14. ANTI-TUBERCULOSIS CAMPAIGN

The Seventh International Conference of American States recommended the creation of National Anti-Tuberculosis Committees and the formulation of an Anti-Tuberculosis Campaign.

This subject was also considered by the Ninth Pan American Sanitary Conference, at Buenos Aires, which recommended that those Governments which had not yet done so, entrust the organization of the Anti-Tuberculosis Campaign to a central autonomous body, technically equipped and with sufficient resources to formulate and conduct an efficient campaign, coordinating the activities of national, local, and private institutions.

15. TRAFFIC IN NARCOTIC DRUGS

The Pan American Sanitary Bureau has under consideration the provisions of the resolution adopted at Montevideo relative to Traffic in Narcotic Drugs. At the Ninth Pan American Sanitary Conference a resolution was adopted recommending that the results produced in America by the application of the various international conventions on narcotics be carefully observed.

The Pan American Union likewise took appropriate action with regard to the resolutions on the utilization of broadcasting frequencies, the documentation of all Pan American conferences, artistic interchange, and the José Toribio Medina Bibliographic Prize.

IV. MISCELLANEOUS ACTIVITIES

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union has requested the Government of Argentina to appoint the organizing committee contemplated by the resolution on the Inter-American Labor Institute; the Pan American Union has forwarded to the Governments copies of the resolutions relative to the preparation of studies on money and banking, on the social and economic conditions of intellectual workers, and on the distribution of reports of Pan American activities. The attention of the Governments has been called to those resolutions adopted at Montevideo relative to the maintenance of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History and the International American Institute for the Protection of Childhood. Copies of the Peace Code, submitted at Montevideo by the Mexican delegation, have been forwarded to all the Governments, and finally, the resolution on bills of lading, with an accompanying explanatory memorandum, has been distributed among the Governments by the Pan American Union.

V. DEPOSIT OF RATIFICATIONS OF CONVENTIONS

Following the precedent established at the Sixth International Conference of American States and observed in drawing up conventions at a number of special conferences held since that time, the Conventions signed at the Seventh Conference provide that the instruments

of ratification shall be deposited with the Pan American Union, and that the Union shall communicate to all the States, members of the Union, notice of the deposit of ratifications. The centralization in the Pan American Union of the instruments of ratification of Pan American treaties and conventions has proved to have decided advantages over the previously prevailing practice of having the ratifications deposited in the respective countries in which the conferences had been held. By having one central depository, complete information may be obtained with respect to the status of any Pan American treaty or convention.

The diplomatic instruments signed at Montevideo, all of which made the Pan American Union the depository for the instruments of ratification, are as follows:

- Convention on the Nationality of Women.
- Convention on Nationality.
- Convention on Extradition.
- Convention on Political Asylum.
- Convention on the Teaching of History.
- Convention on the Rights and Duties of States.

The additional protocol to the General Convention on Inter-American Conciliation provides that the ratifications of that instrument shall be deposited with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Chile. This is due to the fact that this protocol supplements the Convention on Conciliation signed at Washington in 1929, which in turn broadened the principles of the Treaty to Avoid or Prevent Conflicts signed at the Fifth International Conference of American States, held at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; both of these provided that ratifications should be deposited with the Government of Chile.

The action thus far taken on the conventions signed at Montevideo is as follows:

CONVENTION ON THE NATIONALITY OF WOMEN

Ratified by	Ratification deposited
United States.....	July 13, 1934
Chile.....	August 29, 1934

CONVENTION ON ASYLUM

Dominican Republic.....	December 26, 1934
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CONVENTION ON EXTRADITION

United States.....	July 13, 1934
Dominican Republic.....	December 26, 1934

CONVENTION ON RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF STATES

United States.....	July 13, 1934
Dominican Republic.....	December 26, 1934

ADDITIONAL PROTOCOL TO THE GENERAL CONVENTION OF INTER-AMERICAN CONCILIATION

United States.....	August 18, 1934
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EXHIBITION OF RELIGIOUS ART IN BUENOS AIRES

THE reputation of Buenos Aires as an artistic center was confirmed by an exhibition of religious art held there last October in connection with the XXXII Eucharistic Congress. For the first time in Argentina a collection of this kind, the property of civil and ecclesiastical bodies, public and private museums, and individuals, was presented to the public.

The exhibition was divided into two sections, European and American. Included in the former were, to quote the catalog, "works that any great European gallery would be proud to display . . . paintings by Van Dyck, El Greco, Tintoretto, Zurbarán, Goya, El Divino Morales, and Delacroix; sculpture by Alonso Cano and Pedro de Mena; ivories; custodias and other masterpieces wrought in silver; fifteenth century enamels; Gothic robes and embroideries; and tapestries."

It was the American section, however, that awakened the greatest interest, for its scope and the merit of the individual pieces were a revelation to many. It also served as a reminder of the contribution made by religious institutions in introducing the then highly developed Spanish culture into the Western Hemisphere. That very important factor in American history has hitherto received little attention from students, who have limited their studies to analyses of the military phases of the conquest, the Spanish legislation concerning the Indies, or the commercial policy of Spain during the colonial period.

A handsome annotated and illustrated catalog was issued by the organizing committee. Through the kindness of its learned chairman, Señor Enrique Udaondo, it is possible to reproduce some of the illustrations and to quote from the introductory sketch, which gives enough of the historical and artistic background of the American section for an intelligent appreciation of the exhibits.

In South America, the Society of Jesus and the Order of St. Francis stand out among the congregations. Their missions were centers for all kinds of industries and the training schools for artists whose works, religious and civil, were widely distributed; those which have been preserved until the present day are the pride of museums and collectors. The influence of the clergy on the cultural development of America was great and almost always anonymous, for the names of the masters whose pupils produced the works which today give us such pleasure have been lost forever, and we only know to which order, Jesuit or Franciscan, they belonged.



Property of Sres. Carlos y Martín Noel.

THE IMMACULATE CONCEPTION.

An example of the XVIII century school of painting in Cuzco, which had a high reputation as an art center. This picture shows the influence of Murillo. The ornamentation of gold leaf on the robe of the Virgin and in other details is to be noted.

Although the Spanish artistic influence predominated in the colonies, it was not the only European one, for it is well known that the monks of the various orders which civilized the natives came from different nations, and each one brought with him and transmitted to the Indians a wealth of artistic antecedents, indigenous to the place where he had been educated. Therefore in architecture, as in sculpture, Italian and Flemish elements found expression. Later, and especially in the Río de la Plata region, the influence of Portuguese art was felt in silver work and, above all, in furniture.

The artistic production of the Viceroyalty of the Río de la Plata, in spite of the fact that it stemmed from the prevailing Spanish baroque, shows the influence of two tendencies or schools. These are altogether different, because craftsmen interpreted the precepts of the Spanish masters according to their individual racial temperaments and the elements or materials at hand for carrying them out.

The center of one such tendency was in Peru, the headquarters of Spanish colonization in South America. In Cuzco, which had an artistic tradition dating from pre-Hispanic days, schools of painters, sculptors, and silversmiths arose; their works served as models for other craftsmen established in upper Peru during its apogee, when the Church and the people could easily afford to demonstrate the wealth of which they were so proud by the purchase of sumptuous works of art.

In referring to Peru, the splendid school of painting in Quito cannot be ignored. Its influence spread to Upper and Lower Peru,¹ and it reached its highest development during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The school of Quito produced many accomplished artists, whose magnificent productions enriched its churches and palaces. Commissions from neighboring regions were also executed there and the works of art entrusted to carters or mule-dealers for delivery.

Besides painters, Peru produced great silversmiths. The fruits of their genius is comparable only to the output of Spain and Portugal; the differences between the two were due to the influence of native American primitive art. Extant examples gleam as brightly as on the day they were made; in many cases they have emerged unharmed from the successive coats of paint with which ignorance, bad taste, or eagerness for change had them covered, and after cleaning the original metal reappears with the brilliance of long ago.

The native contribution, especially in architecture, was later supplanted by the Churrigueresque, a conglomeration of twisted columns, angels' heads, volutes, and every kind of ornament, with which church decorations, statues, and paintings were overloaded. This was very different from the earlier baroque, which had inspired works of true intrinsic value.

¹ Upper Peru is now Bolivia.—EDITOR.



CRUCIFIX AND CANDLE-STICKS.

XVIII century work from the church of Villa Rica, Paraguay.

Property of Dr. Ricardo de Lafuente Machain.



XVIII CENTURY CRUCIFIX FROM NORTHERN ARGENTINA.

The figure of Christ is of ivory, the cross of jacaranda wood with inlay and decorations of silver.

Property of Sra. María E. Ledesma de González Gowland.

HEAD OF CHRIST.

This polychrome sculpture in wood, with rays of hammered silver, was made in a Jesuit mission during the xvii century.



Property of Sr. Alfredo González Garaño.



Property of Museo de la Plata.

ST. GREGORY THE GREAT.

This bust of wood, painted in colors, came from the ruins of Trinidad, a former Guarany *doctrina*, or curacy, on the Paraná in Paraguay. It dates from the xviii century.

Sculpture reached a high state of development, largely owing to the resolution adopted by the Council of Trent and repeated by the Third Mexican Council—a regional one—relative to images, recommending that they be made painted or carved, so that they should not have to be robed. This principle particularly suited the settlements in our country, where rich fabrics were scarce and therefore very expensive, while the handiwork of painters and sculptors, as well as gold leaf and colored paints, cost much less.

Therefore polychrome statuary, characteristically carved furniture, and picture frames, splendidly carved in an extreme Churrigueresque manner and gilded with untarnishable gold, were the works to which those artists devoted their well-developed decorative sense and great technical skill. Nature, too, was their ally, since within their reach were stone, wood, and metals, that is, suitable materials for them to work with. These advantages were strengthened by the fiscal policy of the Spanish Crown, which, by designating Porto Bello as the only port of call for commercial galleons, benefited those living on the Pacific coast by enabling them to obtain the tools, paints, fabrics, and models which facilitated their work.

The other artistic influence felt in the territory now Argentina was that of the littoral. This originated in Paraguay, which was the center of the school known as "mission" or "Jesuit" because it began and found its highest expression in the reductions established by the Society of Jesus in the lands lying between the Paraguay and Uruguay Rivers.

In the settlements established there, as was later true in Buenos Aires, the Basque element predominated and imposed austere simple habits that changed little because of the slight importance attached to this section of America until after it became a Viceroyalty in 1778.

The pomp and pageantry of Peru were never known in the Río de la Plata. The lack of stone and, for many years, the scarcity of tiles and bricks did not permit the construction of churches and palaces like those which today astonish the visitor in Bolivia.

Nor was there a native population with pre-Hispanic art traditions; nomadic life did not encourage the cultivation of industries requiring permanence and sedentary habits. This deprived the Rioplatenses of elements which might have appreciably modified and enriched the Castilian contribution. They also had a limited choice of raw materials since, except for a certain kind of red sandstone used in the churches of the present Territory of Misiones, they had only wood at their disposal. Therefore carvers flourished, both as sculptors of statuary and as decorators of furniture, beams, and structural elements, work in which real artists were developed; the same was true in inlay work, the designs for which were copied from European books and engravings.



Property of Sra. Atelea Napp de Lumb.



Property of Museo Isaac Fernández Blanco.

ART OBJECTS IN THE BUENOS AIRES EXHIBIT.

(Upper) Embossed silver tray, xvii century. The figure in the center represents St. John the Baptist; the background contains motifs taken from American flora and fauna. (Right) Gold and silver christmatory. A beautiful xviii century example of the silver-smith's art. (Lower) xviii century chest with mother-of-pearl inlay.



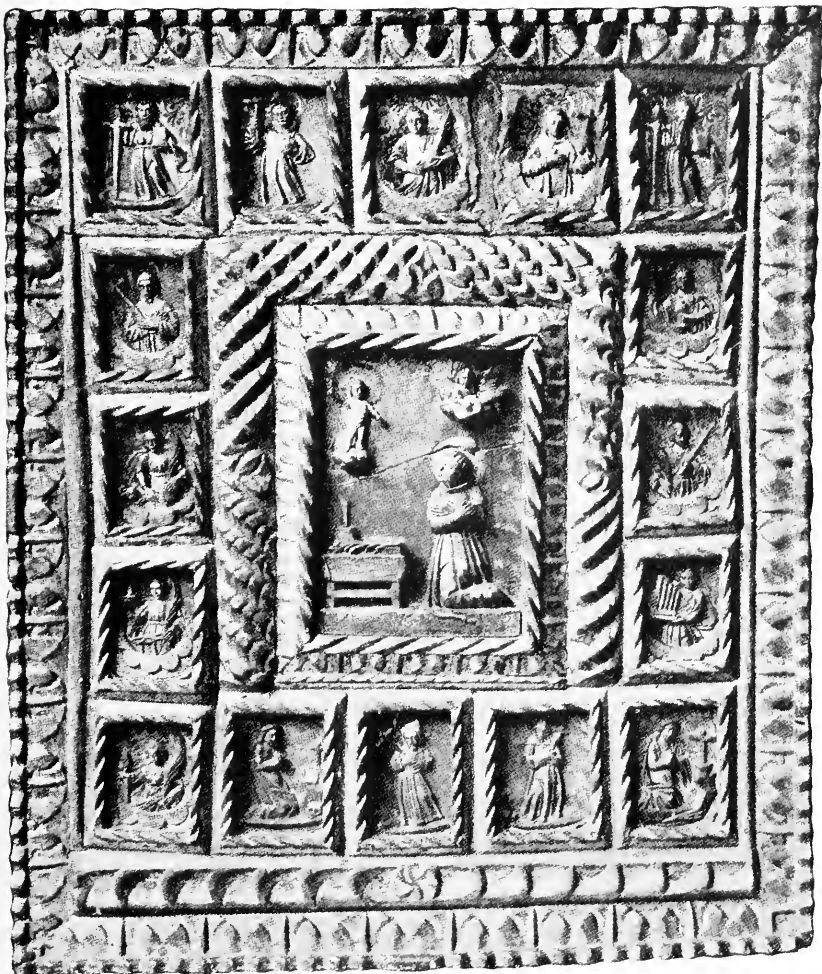
Property of Museo de Luján.



Property of Sr. Alejandro Madero.

THE CREATION OF EVE.

This native tapestry was made of alpaca wool by the Indians of Upper Peru in the xvii century. The colors, of local vegetable dyes, have retained their original brilliance.



Property of Srta. Celina González Garaño.

RETABLE OF WOOD AND STONE.

The seventeen insets are of Huamanga stone, painted in colors. The subject of the central panel is the vision of St. Anthony. This xvii century work of art was originally in a church in Cuzco.

The Jesuit missions of Paraguay built churches remarkable for their strength and originality in the adaptation of woods, which were used exclusively and in great profusion to attain effects of great beauty. Unfortunately the perishability of the raw materials has expedited their destruction, hastened by the indifference and lack of understanding of the generations which followed.

Another reason why the arts developed slowly in these regions was their geographic location. The towns were isolated by the great distances between them and the ports legally open to commerce, so that the inhabitants had to resort to smuggling to obtain the necessary means of subsistence. It was only natural, therefore, that materials for luxuries were given least consideration.

In Buenos Aires, then a mean provincial town, the earliest manifestations of art came from the architects and were very modest—the whitewashing of the walls, a luxury reserved, for many years, for the few churches erected there.

At the beginning of the eighteenth century, a group of Jesuits stands out. Among the most prominent members were Fathers Primoli, Planqui, Krauss, and Wolff. Under their direction such churches as San Ignacio, San Francisco, San Roque, El Pilar, San Pedro Telmo, La Merced, and Las Catalinas were built; to Father Primoli belongs the glory of directing the construction of the historic Cabildo. There were many ateliers, but the sculpture, carving, and furniture produced by the workshop in the convent on the Cerro de San Pedro, where Father Schmidt—who designed the celebrated pulpit of the metropolitan church of Jujuy—worked, are eminent examples of the artistic work done by members of that Order.

The art of painting was practically unknown in Buenos Aires; its development is comparatively recent, dating from the end of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth.

The Company of Jesus introduced not only the first printing press to be operated in South America, that of Lima established in 1584, but also the one set up in the Guarany missions in 1700, a large part of whose publications were on display in the exhibition. After the Order had been suppressed, its type and presses were utilized by Viceroy Vértiz in founding a printing office in Buenos Aires in 1780.

SUMMARY OF ARCHAEOLOGICAL WORK IN THE AMERICAS 1931-1932-1933

III. NORTH AMERICA¹

By CARL E. GUTHE, Ph. D.

*Director, Museum of Anthropology, University of Michigan; Chairman, Committee
on State Archaeological Surveys, National Research Council*

THE archaeological work accomplished in North America in the three-year period with which this report deals is interesting. Although economic conditions have limited available funds, and in some cases completely prevented field work by representatives of organizations long active in this labor, yet the increased coordination of activities has led to definite progress in the interpretation of archaeological records. Additional data have been brought to bear upon the two major problems confronting students of North American archaeological history, namely (1) the origin and antiquity of man on this continent; and (2) the growth and interpretation of the several Indian cultures of the region.

An outstanding development of the past few years has been the increasing number of reasonably well-documented discoveries of material evidence concerning the antiquity of man in North America.

The field work on the now famous Gypsum Cave site in Nevada, discussed in the review for 1929 and 1930, was completed by M. R. Harrington, of the Southwest Museum, during January 1931. The most important find during this month was another fireplace near the first in room I between two unbroken layers of ground-sloth dung at a depth of approximately eight feet. The fuel had been ground-sloth dung for the most part, and the fire had been trampled on while still burning, as deduced from scattered pieces which had scorched the ground where they fell. The lower layer of dung rested, without trace of burning, directly upon the remains of this camp fire. A full report of the work accomplished at this highly important site was published in 1933 as *Southwest Museum Papers*, Number Eight.

In 1932, Mr. Harrington returned to Nevada to examine a number of caves showing traces of occupation. Records were found of a pre-Basket Maker people, very poor in artifacts, who left deep deposits in certain caves containing little but split animal bones, ashes, and charcoal. These people were followed by Basket Makers,

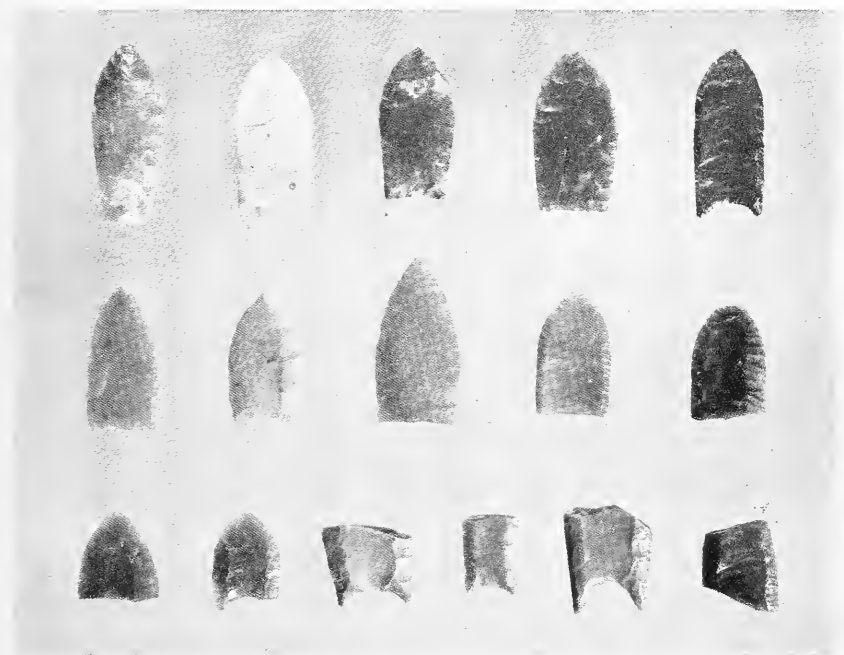
¹ Parts I and II, on South America and Middle America, which were written by S. K. Lothrop and Frans Blom, respectively, appeared in the November and December, 1934, issues of the BULLETIN.

Early Pueblo people, and lastly by the ancestors of the Shoshone, who left occasional objects in the uppermost deposits.

Again, in the late fall of 1933, Mr. Harrington encountered further apparent evidence for the antiquity of human occupation of North America while making a preliminary investigation of a deposit of apparently mixed Pleistocene animal and human character associated with an ancient lake bed near Las Vegas, Nevada. Heavy beds of charcoal, lying in some cases 14 feet below present ground level, contained many burned and split bones of various Pleistocene animals. Two bones recovered seem to have been worked into scrapers or fleshers, while several obsidian fragments bear evidence of artificial fracture. This investigation was made at the request of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, which provided the funds.

In the meantime, in the Guadalupe Mountains of southeastern New Mexico, Edgar B. Howard, of the Museum of the University of Pennsylvania, started, in 1931, the second season of investigations of the cultural remains in the caves of the region. Here he encountered evidence of ancient man. Barnum Brown, of the American Museum of Natural History, was called in as a collaborator. The principal site was a dry cave containing about eight feet of dust and debris. Remains of an early Basket Maker culture occupied the uppermost 20 inches of the deposit. Beneath this layer, to a total depth of seven feet, were found hearths, artifacts, and bones of extinct animals, such as species of bison, antelope, horse, camel, musk-ox, and California condor. Associated with bones of an extinct species of bison, at a depth of about four feet beneath the lowest Basket Maker burial, was found a hearth and a spear point of the Folsom type.

The following year Mr. Howard, working with the cooperation of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, finished the excavation of this cave. Additional records of Basket Maker occupation were discovered, as well as further remains of extinct animals, extending to depths of approximately nine feet from the original surface. Several deep hearths were encountered, some of which contained charred animal bones. During this season an old lake bed, from which the sand had been blown into high dunes surrounding it, was discovered at some distance from the cave. Here were found Folsom points as well as bones of extinct animals, some of which were seen *in situ*. The season of 1933 was primarily devoted to a further study of the lake beds near Clovis, New Mexico. This year Mr. Howard was aided by representatives of the California Institute of Technology. Specialized spear points, scrapers, and knives were found in association with mammoth and bison bones in the upper levels of the re-exposed lake beds. Although no definite age could be placed upon the artifacts, the evidence clearly indicated the contemporaneity of the artifacts and the extinct animals.



Courtesy of the University Museum, University of Pennsylvania.

CHIPPED STONE POINTS FOUND NEAR CLOVIS, NEW MEXICO.

These were recovered from old lake beds and were associated with the bones of extinct mammoth and bison.

On the western high plains the search for additional traces of the Folsom culture has continued. The season of 1931 was the last of the three-year survey undertaken by the American Museum of Natural History. Richard M. Snodgrass, in charge of the work, examined sites near Amarillo, Texas, and Lamar, Colorado, assisted by Robert P. Merrill, representing the Laboratory of Anthropology at Santa Fe. In 1932 and 1933, Dr. Renaud, of the University of Denver, while conducting his survey of the high plains, gathered many Folsom and Yuma points from new districts in eastern Colorado and western Nebraska, demonstrating the extensive distribution of these fine and probably very ancient points over a vast territory in unexpectedly large numbers.

In Nebraska, where in years past other discoveries attributed to ancient man had been made, further noteworthy associations have been exposed recently in the course of paleontological excavations. In 1931, C. B. Schultz, of the University of Nebraska, reinvestigated an old quarry in which two skulls of *Bison occidentalis* had been found eight years before, with which a dart point was associated. In the current study additional bison bones and still another dart point were found. In the same year another field party, under the direction

of A. M. Brookings, director of the Hastings (Nebraska) Museum, collaborating with the Colorado Museum of Natural History, encountered a Folsom point beneath the scapula of an articulated mammoth skeleton exposed in Nuckolls County, Nebraska.

In 1932, Schultz found four points and a scraper in association with many bison bones in a site near Signal Butte in western Nebraska. Early in the fall of the same year discoveries were made by several individuals in the neighborhood of Dalton, Nebraska. Four implements were found in deposits indicating antiquity. Although they were not in association with extinct animal bones, the geological record indicates that it is probable their age may be counted in thousands, rather than hundreds, of years.

A more intensive investigation of particular significance to the problem of the antiquity of man on the high plains was carried out by the Bureau of American Ethnology. Following a reconnaissance trip in 1931, W. D. Strong returned in 1932 to Signal Butte, in western Nebraska. Here, on the top of an isolated mesa, occur three levels of human occupation, separated in each case by some two feet of barren aeolian deposits. The lowest level is thick, containing a series of open hearths and cache pits dug down into the underlying sand and gravel. Bone and chipped-stone artifacts are abundant, polished stone rare, and pottery totally absent. The stone projectile points, of the type most abundant in this lowest level, while smaller, are of the same general form as those found with extinct mammals in Nebraska. This level rests on water-borne materials laid down during an early period of precipitation when the butte was still connected with the main escarpment to the South. Whether a time break occurs between the water-borne materials and the earliest human occupation remains to be determined, but an early post-Pleistocene dating for this horizon seems probable.

A discovery of somewhat different character, but of great importance, was made in Minnesota in 1931. In June of that year a road maintenance crew, while repairing a highway near the town of Pelican Rapids, exposed a human skeleton. Although the major portion of the bones was removed at this time, it was possible for A. E. Jenks, of the University of Minnesota, to confirm the statements of the road crew by finding additional fragments of the skeleton and associated materials in excavations conducted during the summer of 1932.

The material was found embedded in a deposit of laminated silt which geologists have identified as lake deposits created by "Glacial Lake Pelican" at the close of the Pleistocene period. This lake was about 2,000 years older than Glacial Lake Agassiz, and thus the deposits have been judged to be some 20,000 years old.

The unusually complete skeleton of a young woman lay on its left side in a partly flexed posture. Professor Jenks states "the skull is



Courtesy of W. D. Strong.

SIGNAL BUTTE, NEBRASKA.

Upper: View from the south. The excavations of the Smithsonian Institution in 1932 revealed a deposit of occupational debris laid down by a very ancient culture which apparently did not use pottery. Lower: The excavations in process, showing the screening of the deposits from different levels in order to insure the preservation of all material evidence.

morphologically of a nature to compel its assignment as an early type of *Homo sapiens*. It is of a generalized Mongoloid type and not a specialized American type. For purposes of identification, we have named the type for which this skeleton stands the 'Minnesota Man'." It was found at a depth of nine feet nine inches below the original surface of the ground, and three feet six inches above the base of the laminated silt deposit. Associated with the bones were fragments of antler, shell, and turtle carapace, some of which may have been artifacts. There is no evidence that the skeleton was originally buried by man. Four of the witnesses of the original discovery have recorded that they saw the undisturbed layers of silt from beneath which the skeleton was later taken.

The increasing number of sites in which well-documented evidence of association of artifacts and bones of extinct animals has been found has led to a general acceptance of the principle of contemporaneity of man and an extinct fauna. The discovery of human remains in geological deposits to which glaciologists can assign a reasonably definite age greatly strengthens the case for early post-Pleistocene man in the New World. However, additional evidence is needed before this important aspect of Indian history can be considered reasonably clarified. The many factors involved in the problem have been presented by ten leading scholars in a series of articles edited by Diamond Jenness and published under the title "American Aborigines", by the University of Toronto Press, 1933.

The northern and western portions of North America, which were occupied by the non-agricultural groups, have received relatively little attention from archaeologists. However, intensive research has continued in Alaska and southern California.

The United States Government, through staff members of the National Museum, continued to study the Eskimo cultures of Alaska. In 1931, Ales Hrdlička did reconnaissance work in the valleys of the Nushagak, Molchatna, and Woods Rivers, the proximal parts of the Alaskan Peninsula, Iliamna Lake, and Kodiak Island. The following year he returned to Kodiak Island, where excavations of a prehistoric village site at Uyak Bay yielded a large amount of material and skeletal remains indicating two racial types.

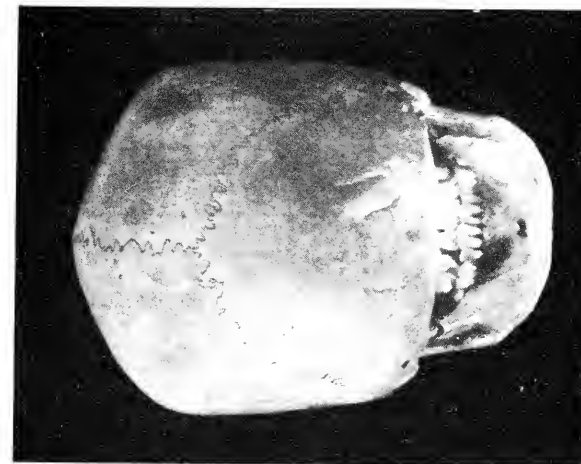
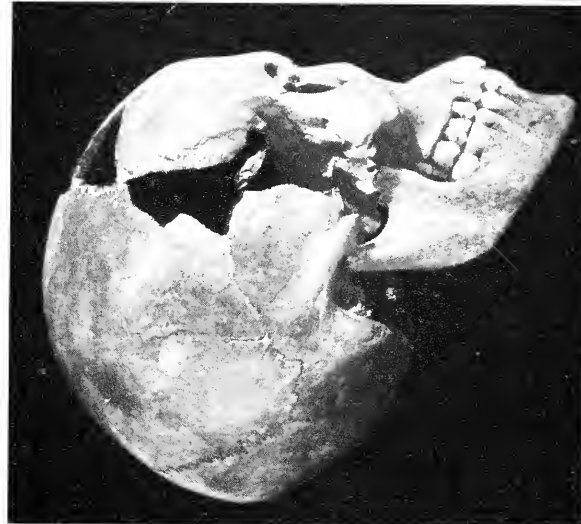
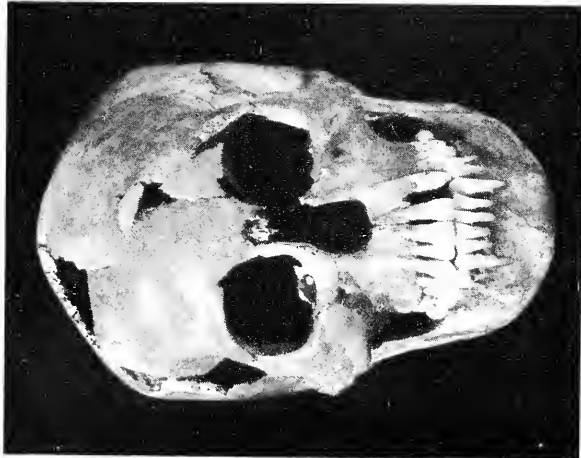
In 1931, Moreau B. Chambers continued the excavations near Gambell, on St. Lawrence Island, in the sites in which Henry B. Collins, Jr., in the summer of 1930 had found an unbroken sequence of Eskimo cultures from an early phase of the Old Bering Sea culture to the present time. This chronological record was made more complete, especially with regard to the transitional phase between the Old Bering Sea and the Punuk periods. James B. Ford proceeded to Point Barrow in 1931, but adverse climatic conditions prevented field-work during that season. After spending the winter there, he ex-

cavated several old Eskimo sites in the vicinity during the summer of 1932. The evidence encountered has served to clarify considerably the interrelationships of the Old Bering Sea, the Birnirk, the Punuk, and the Thule cultures.

The Alaska Agricultural College and School of Mines undertook, in 1931, the investigation of the midden of the ancient village site of Kukulik on St. Lawrence Island. Under the direction of Otto Wm. Geist, excavations made during the three seasons covered by this report have revealed interesting stratified deposits, the remains of houses at different levels, many burials, and a quantity of artifacts. These data indicate successive occupation periods which may be related typologically with at least the Old Bering Sea, the Birnirk, and the Thule cultures.

The museum of the University of Pennsylvania has continued the study of the cultures on Kachemak Bay, southern coast of Cook Inlet. Frederica de Laguna, who directed this work in 1931 and 1932, found the remains of five occupations from the modern Athabaskan Indian village, inhabited only 50 years ago, to the lowest of four prehistoric Eskimo deposits, all now buried under beach gravel, for the land has sunk about 15 feet since the first habitation. The material shows a development of the Kachemak Bay culture through three or four stages. Its basis is apparently a rather generalized Eskimo culture, in which a number of types known from the Thule culture of Canada played an important part. It also shows relationship to the cultures of the Pacific Eskimo and Aleut when first encountered. Yet it contains a rich mixture of Indian elements, especially in the third or final stage. The much-discussed stone lamps with a human figure in the bowl belong to the lower part of the third or last stage of the Kachemak Bay culture, for a lamp of this type was found *in situ*. In 1933, Dr. de Laguna, representing the museum, took part in a joint expedition which included Kaj Birket-Smith, of the National Museum of Denmark. This is the first time that a Danish-American collaboration has occurred in the anthropological investigation of Alaska, although it is a natural consequence of the interest which both countries must hold in questions regarding Eskimo research. A prehistoric site on Hawkins Island, near Cordova, was excavated and several burial caves and sites with rock paintings were studied. The archaeological collections obtained from Prince William Sound indicate that this prehistoric Eskimo culture is correlated with the third or last period of the Kachemak Bay culture of Cook Inlet.

In southern California, the Desert Branch of the Southwest Museum at Twenty Nine Palms, under the charge of Mr. and Mrs. W. H. Campbell, has continued the archaeological survey of Riverside and San Bernardino Counties. Many cave and village sites have been recorded and a quantity of specimens gathered. Especial attention



Courtesy of Albert Ernest Jenks.

"MINNESOTA MAN" ON FRANKFORT PLANE.

Left: Front view, from "Minnesota Pleistocene Homo, an Interim Communication", by Albert Ernest Jenks, Department of Anthropology, University of Minnesota, in *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, vol. 19, no. 1, January 1933. Center: Profile, never before published. Right: Occipital view, from Jenks, *op. cit.* These views are one-third actual size.

has been given to the camp sites on the shores of dry lake beds and to different forms of cremation practiced by the ancient peoples of the region. Throughout the three-year period, the San Diego Museum has continued its survey of southern California, including in 1932 a part of northeastern Lower California, and in 1933 the lower basin of the Colorado River. Certain culture boundaries and their geographical relations at different periods have been established, as well as directional culture diffusion. Late in 1933 this museum excavated an historic Digueno cremation cemetery containing cinerary urns and ungathered cremations.

In 1931 and 1932 the Los Angeles Museum continued its investigation of Chumash village sites. The large quantities of materials and records obtained from several sites have furnished further details for cultural comparison. In one village, which was occupied into historic times, the remains of semi-subterranean circular houses were studied. In 1933 this museum undertook a survey of portions of Los Angeles and Ventura Counties, plotting some 200 village and camp sites, locating a number of storage-workshop caves, tracing Indian trails, and identifying mines and quarries.

Farther north in California a new institution, the Sacramento Junior College, has begun archaeological field work. An Indian village in eastern Sacramento County was trenched in 1933. A cemetery containing flexed burials was encountered, and two hardened earth-ash floors were revealed. Although the artifacts were scarce, it was possible to determine the cultural affinities of the village. A neighboring Nisenan Indian identified by name and use many of the objects found in the excavations.

In the Columbia-Fraser area L. S. Cressman, of the University of Oregon, has been making a special study of the petroglyphs of his state. Some time has also been spent in excavating certain sites in the Willamette Valley. Farther east, along the Continental Divide, members of the staff of the University of Montana have begun a survey of the "tipi rings" and alignments of stones which are characteristic of remains in that state. During the three-year period covered by this report no archeological expeditions were sent into central and eastern Canada to study the simpler cultures of these regions.

Tracing the development of those cultures acquainted with the principle of agriculture has occupied the attention of the majority of the students working in North American archaeology. The greater complexity of the cultures and the larger quantity of data have served to stimulate this interest. Recent developments make it difficult to follow the subdivisions used in the previous report. These cultures may be divided tentatively into those centering in the Southwest, those located in the Great Plains, and, finally, those in the eastern United States.



Courtesy of Gila Pueblo, Globe, Arizona.

HOHOKAM STONE ARTIFACTS AND POTTERY.

These objects, from the prehistoric Hohokam village near Snaketown, Arizona, illustrate some of the characteristic features of the Hohokam culture.

The Southwest.—An important advance in the archaeology of the Southwest has been the definition of criteria establishing the independent development of the cultures centering in the Gila-Salt River Basin. This culture, which has been given the name Hohokam, produced the red-on-buff pottery. The staff of Gila Pueblo at Globe, Arizona, under the leadership of Harold S. Gladwin, has made a special study of this culture through survey work and excavations. During the past three years this organization has extended its surveys to include a large portion of central and southern Arizona, northern Mexico, western and southern New Mexico, and parts of Texas. The data obtained through charts and surface collections secured at hundreds of sites in this survey have been given breadth and depth through excavations conducted at strategic localities in all of the areas investigated.

In 1931 the Los Angeles Museum completed the field work upon the Grewe site, a Hohokam village. Later in the season, tests were made at a site near Gila Butte, which was found to be similar to the Grewe site. Surveys revealing valuable data were made in the region of Black Mountain, and in the area between the Black and White Rivers on the Fort Apache and San Carlos Indian Reservations.

The principal project conducted throughout the three-year period by the University of Arizona and the Arizona State Museum has been the excavation of the large ruin called Kinishba on the Fort Apache Reservation. The quantity of articles and information obtained from the rooms and burials which have been uncovered shows this site to have been occupied during the later Hohokam periods, when

influence from the Little Colorado region was felt. In 1931 these organizations continued the excavation of the Martinez Hill ruin, and in the following two years devoted some time to examining ruins near Prescott and Clarkdale, both in the region influenced by the Hohokam people. Odd S. Halseth, of the Phoenix Archaeological Commission, has continued throughout the three years the study of the city-owned ruin of Pueblo Grande. This Hohokam ruin is the center of a community which once covered an area of 50 to 75 acres. It is of massive stone and adobe construction, and was occupied during late Hohokam times. Halseth has also done some survey work in the region, pursuant to his special study of prehistoric irrigation.

In 1931, Neil M. Judd, of the United States National Museum, was loaned to the Bureau of American Ethnology to make a survey of the caves containing rude dwellings situated along the western base of the Natanes Plateau. The potsherds associated with these remains indicate that these dwellings had been occupied as early as the late thirteenth century. In this same year Earl Morris, loaned to the University of Colorado by Carnegie Institution of Washington, excavated several small buildings near Solomsville, Arizona. The pottery found was predominantly Hohokam, although Mimbres and Little Colorado fragments were also present.

The headwaters of the Gila River, in western New Mexico, a region in which Gila Pueblo has carried on some definitive research, is included in the Mimbres archaeological area. During 1931 two Mimbres sites were studied. The Logan Museum of Beloit College (Wisconsin) spent its third season in the area completing the excavation of the Mattocks ruin. The University of Minnesota devoted its final season in Mimbres territory to further examination of the Galaz Ranch site. Both sites furnished evidence of several phases of the Mimbres culture, and of Hohokam influence as well. In the season of 1933, Mr. and Mrs. C. B. Cosgrove, working under the auspices of Carnegie Institution of Washington and the Peabody Museum of Harvard, undertook excavations in a large adobe-built pueblo near Cloverdale, in the extreme southwestern corner of New Mexico. The evidence indicated a mixture of Chihuahuahua and Middle Gila cultures, the pottery being predominantly Chihuahuahua, the metates of the Middle Gila type.

Between the area occupied by the Hohokam people and the San Juan drainage, in which Pueblo III culture reached its greatest development, lies the drainage of the Little Colorado River, with its headwaters in western New Mexico. Throughout the three-year period the staff of Gila Pueblo has done survey work in the eastern part of this area. A few small sites in the Wingate Valley were excavated in 1932, and in 1933 four units were cleared in a village ruin near Coolidge, New Mexico. The architecture and pottery of this site, which was

dated at the very beginning of the 10th century, belonged to the Little Colorado culture. In 1932 surface sherd collections were made at 89 sites across the state line in the vicinity of both Begashebetto and Blue Canyon Wash in eastern Arizona by Deric Nusbaum for the Laboratory of Anthropology at Santa Fe.

The largest field project in the eastern part of the Little Colorado drainage was executed under the auspices of the Bureau of American Ethnology during the field seasons of 1931, 1932, and the first part of that of 1933, by Frank H. H. Roberts, Jr., who excavated portions of an archaeological site three and a half miles south of Allantown in eastern Arizona. In 1931 the archaeological field training group from the Laboratory of Anthropology at Santa Fe was assigned to Dr. Roberts. In 1933 he was loaned to the Laboratory by the Bureau for eight weeks in order to take charge of a similar group working at this site. During these three seasons, the excavations revealed four distinct horizons belonging to Basket Maker III, and Pueblo I, II, and III. In addition to important information concerning architectural developments and the sequence of pottery types, as well as data concerning the method of disposing of the dead, valuable specimens were recovered. One of the pit-houses studied was restored, and shed roofs were erected over the remaining pits of two other structures.

Farther west in the Little Colorado region, the active Museum of Northern Arizona at Flagstaff has been successfully pursuing its four-fold program. The records of more than 850 new sites have been added during the past three years to the Archaeological Survey of Northern Arizona, which is gradually working westward. Many Pueblo I and II pit-houses occupied before the eruption of Sunset Crater were excavated, but no datable charcoal has yet been recovered, and the exact date of the eruption is still in question. However, a large amount of datable beam material has been obtained from other sites, and a substantial library of dendrochronological records established. The date of construction of one of the earliest pit-houses has been assigned to 784 A. D. The intensive research upon the Pueblo II culture of the region has brought together a mass of information which has served to clarify many details of this culture, such as the evolution in this area of the pit-house and the granary into the kiva and pueblo. The relations of this culture to its neighbors both in time and in space have been clarified by the excavation, in 1932, of the typical Hohokam dwelling in this region, and the examination in 1933 of the Pueblo III ruin of Wupatki. In the summer of 1933 this organization cooperated with the National Park Service by lending L. L. Hargrave to the Rainbow Bridge-Monument Valley Expedition.

On the western and northern borders of the Southwest, further studies have been made during the past three years. In 1933, M. R. Harrington, of the Southwest Museum, examined a small Basket

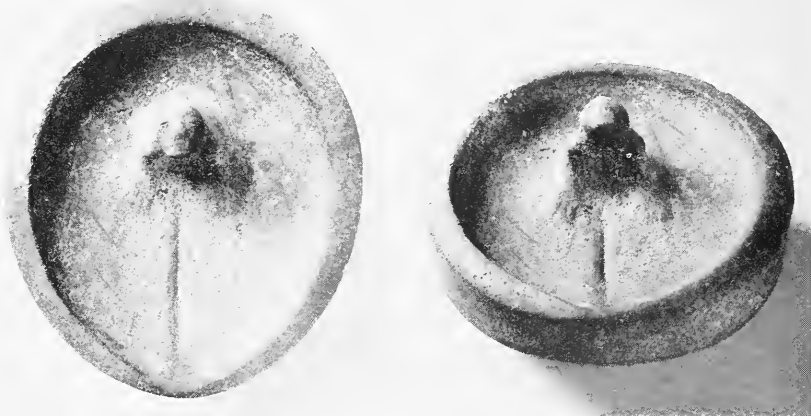
Maker village at the mouth of the Virgin River in southeastern Nevada and later in the year went to the Moapa Valley to direct archaeological work to be done by the Civilian Conservation Corps in the Boulder Lake area with a view to preserving the remains and developing points of interest to visitors. In 1931, Julian Steward, of the University of Utah, continued his investigations in the neighborhood of Great Salt Lake, paying special attention to the deposits in caves on the shore lines of Lake Bonneville. A cave at Black Rock yielded evidence of human occupation several thousand years old. Steward devoted the field season of 1932 to reconnaissance trips down the Colorado River from the mouth of the Fremont River to Lee's Ferry, and over the canyons and mesas between the Paria and Kanab Rivers in southern Utah. Throughout the three-year period covered by this report, Albert B. Reagan, of the United States Indian Service, continued his investigations of the Basket Maker and Pueblo II type cultures in the Uintah Basin in northeastern Utah. In 1931 the Peabody Museum of Harvard completed the archaeological reconnaissance of the basin of the Colorado and Green Rivers in Utah, begun in 1927 under the Claffin-Emerson Fund. The remains of Basket Maker and Pueblo cultures as well as pictographs were found in many parts of the area studied.

Southeastern Utah is a part of the type locality for Southwestern archaeology, for within the drainage of the San Juan River flourished the classic Pueblo III cultures. In the late fall of 1931, the Peabody Museum of Harvard began work on a site near Montezuma Creek in this area. The excavations carried forward in this and nearby sites during 1932 and 1933 have supplied considerable information upon the little known Pueblo II culture of this region. With the completion of this project at the close of the third season, a very unusual type of community structure had been studied, and information was secured on the developmental changes in architecture and pottery leading to the well-defined Pueblo III culture. In the summer of 1933, this museum began an intensive study of the cave known as Kin-na-ilth, on Chinle Creek in Arizona, near the Arizona-Utah line. Indications of continuous occupation from early Basket Maker to Pueblo II times were found. Good stratigraphy was secured in some spots, and especial attention was given to the study of wall construction.

In the northern Arizona section of the San Juan drainage, Lyndon L. Hargrave, of the Museum of Northern Arizona, led the archaeological section of the Rainbow Bridge-Monument Valley Expedition of the National Park Service, which undertook in 1933 a reconnaissance of this little known area. Some 200 prehistoric sites were located. In addition to the photographs, notes and plans were secured, collections of sherds and wood were obtained, and careful attention was

given to ecological factors which might have affected the life of the ancients.

Earl Morris, of Carnegie Institution of Washington, spent the seasons of 1931 and 1932 in the same region. The first season was devoted to an examination of the Red Rock district of northeastern Arizona, where he found cultural remains beginning with Basket Maker II and ending with the close of Pueblo III. The data secured in the form of records, specimens, and wood samples will permit a thorough description of Basket Maker III culture and the establishment of a tree ring chronology which will ultimately be connected with the nether limit of Dr. Douglass' historic series. The second season was devoted to preventing the collapse of the Pueblo III tower



Courtesy of the University Museum, University of Pennsylvania.

ESKIMO STONE LAMP.

This example of the much-discussed Eskimo stone lamps with a human figure in the bowl was found by Dr. de Laguna. It is associated with the lower part of the third or last stage of the Kachemak Bay culture of southern Alaska.

in Mummy Cave in Canyon del Muerto; searching for timber sections in the southern part of the San Juan drainage just north of Gallup, New Mexico, and among several groups of ruins on the Navajo Reservation.

In 1931 and 1933, Paul S. Martin, of the Field Museum of Natural History, returned to the Lowry ruin near Cortez in southwestern Colorado for the second and third season's work. While some evidence of Basket Maker III or Pueblo I occupation was found, the ruin was primarily an offshoot of the Chaco Canyon culture, but was successively changed, modified, and enlarged by its builders, their descendants, and by newcomers. Unusually interesting details of construction were encountered.

The Chaco Canyon, one of the cultural centers of the Pueblo III period in the San Juan drainage, is located in northwestern New Mexico. Here the School of American Research of the Archaeological Institute of America, in cooperation with the University of New Mexico and the New Mexico State Museum, has spent the third, fourth and fifth field seasons excavating the large communal dwelling known as Chetro Ketl. In addition to carrying forward the work in the house rooms, the great Sanctuary, and the several towers, studies have been made dealing with the ethno-geography, physiography, water resources and climatology of the canyon. Considerable data were also obtained for dendrochronological research.

The Rio Grande drainage which occupies the central portion of New Mexico was one of the major centers of the later Pueblo culture. Here the three cooperating institutions which excavated Chetro Ketl also sponsored the fourth, fifth, and sixth Field Training Schools conducted at Battleship Rock in the Jemez region, and continued the archaeological survey of the Pueblo region begun several years ago. E. B. Renaud, of the University of Denver, in 1933 used Santa Fe as a center for a survey of the pictographs of the region, a study related to his work of the previous year along the headwaters of the Rio Grande in southern Colorado. W. C. Holden and a group of students from Texas Technological College spent the field season of 1933 excavating a late 14th-century ruin a few miles southeast of Santa Fe. Pottery types of Pueblo III and early Pueblo IV were found.

The Archaeological Survey of the Rio Grande Drainage, undertaken by the Laboratory of Anthropology at Santa Fe, has been continued with signal success. Its records now contain data and surface collections from 1,366 sites. In 1932 a survey of all sites in the Tesuque Valley and a study of the surface aspects of all biscuit-ware sites in the upper Rio Grande drainage were completed. In 1933 this survey was able to bound the extent of the Rio Grande glaze-paint wares. During this last season the survey also sponsored excavations in three sites, all of which revealed important archaeological data. In June 1931 the Laboratory of Anthropology at Santa Fe initiated a Dendro-Archaeological Project, involving the drainage of the Rio Grande of New Mexico, because of the importance of establishing a separate tree-ring chronology for this area. The collection of specimens from historic and prehistoric sites and their subsequent examination in the laboratory during the past three years has made it possible to extend the Rio Grande chronology back to about 1100 A. D. A total of 284 archaeological tree-ring specimens have been dated, six of which are from Pueblo III sites. In 1932 the Laboratory inaugurated a third

undertaking, the Ceramic Technology Project, which employs primarily the methods of optical petrology in the analysis and identification of pottery materials. The purpose is to gain an understanding of the technical changes and developments which have taken place in this primitive industry through accurate identification of materials, and an empirical as well as theoretical knowledge of their properties and uses. During the past two years Anna Shepard, who is in charge of this project, has achieved noteworthy research results, developed new techniques, and established a substantial library of clay samples and thin sections of pottery of this area. In December 1933 the Laboratory began the excavation of a Pueblo III site near Santa Fe, which was gradually being washed away by the Santa Fe River. In the course of the work Rio Grande type kivas were found which contained apparent vestiges of Chaco kiva characteristics, and furnished important evidence bearing on the genesis of the Rio Grande kiva.²

² This article will be completed in an early issue.



THE HERALDIC ZOOLOGY OF AMERICA

By ÁNGEL CABRERA ¹

HOWEVER civilized man may become, there is always a trace of the savage in him. Many of the customs of highly cultured nations are only reminiscences of primitive practices. That is true of coats of arms, which are little more than totems for civilized society. Every well-organized nation has its individual symbols which it paints on its shield, as the tribe painted its distinctive marks on the chests of its warriors; and for nations, as for tribes of primitive culture, such symbols frequently take the form of animals.

A comparison of the coats of arms of the different nations brings out the striking fact that the two animals most frequently found in European heraldry, the lion and the eagle, are rare on the shields of the New World. The lion figured, and then only temporarily, on the arms of a single country—Paraguay. As for the eagle, three American nations, the United States, Mexico, and Panama, are the only ones to adopt it on this side of the Atlantic, although each nation has chosen a different species. The one that appears on the coat of arms approved by the Sovereign Congress of Mexico in 1823 is a royal eagle, perched on a cactus plant and holding in its right claw a snake which it is destroying with its beak. The eagle on the United States shield belongs to the species called the white- or bald-headed eagle, and whoever chose it as an emblem for the Union was not, as a matter of fact, really inspired, since it belongs to the group of robber eagles, so-called from their custom of stealing the catch of other birds of prey, instead of going to the trouble of hunting for themselves.

The Mexican eagle, according to some amateurs in heraldic research, is the ancient emblem of the Tlascaltecas, but the more generally accepted opinion is that the device had its origin in an Aztec tradition. According to the legend, when the Aztecs reached the shores of Lake Texcoco in 1335 and planned to establish their capital there, an eagle was seen killing a serpent on a cactus by the water, and this, being considered a favorable omen, was immediately chosen as their emblem.

When Panama first designed its coat of arms in 1904, it chose "the eagle, emblem of sovereignty", to spread its wings over the shield, and the early choice was ratified twenty-one years later.

¹ Translated and adapted from *Caras y Caretas*, Buenos Aires, Nov. 17, 1934.

The South American countries have preferred the condor as their symbolic bird, perhaps because its lofty and majestic flight makes this typical bird of the Andes an appropriate emblem of liberty and strength, or perhaps simply because of the totemic value given to this winged creature by the aborigines of the continent. The Inca Garcilaso relates that some Andine peoples worshipped the condor and boasted of being descended from it. When Tupac Inca Yupanqui conquered the land of the Chachapoyas, their most important god was the condor, and when the Inca civilization was at its zenith, the Peruvians believed the condor to be the noblest of birds. At present this giant among our birds of prey spreads its great wings over the arms of Bolivia, Ecuador, and Colombia, and is one of the supporters



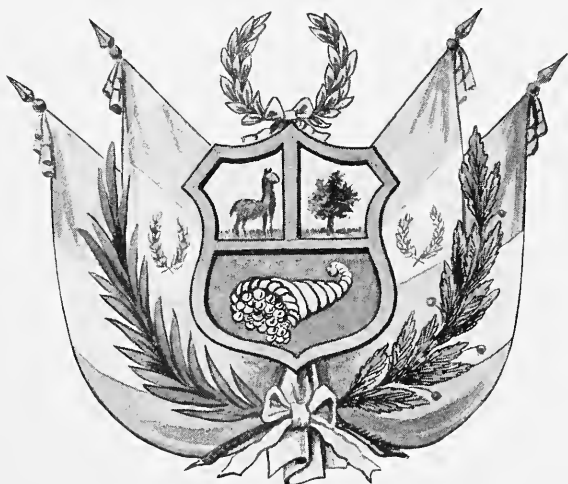
THE COAT OF ARMS OF GUATEMALA.

of the Chilean shield. When San Martín designed the first coat of arms for independent Peru, he included a condor and a llama as its supporters, but in 1825 Bolívar modified the Peruvian shield to the form which it has at present, without any condor.

But no heraldic bird is as beautiful and appropriate as that found on the shield of the tiny Republic of Guatemala: the quetzal, whose image is familiar because it has long figured on the postage stamps of that country. The quetzal, a beautiful bird with a very long tail, whose metallic green plumage flecked with gold contrasts with the flaming crimson of its breast, was the sacred bird of the Aztecs and all the ancient inhabitants of Central America. The natives of Mexico believed it to be a bit of the sun descended from the sky. Its name was also the term for bird in general and for feather, so that for them the quetzal came to be the bird or feathered being, *par*

excellence. In the language of the Aztecs, the emerald was called *quetzal-itzli* or quetzal stone, from its color. Quetzalcoatl, or serpent quetzal, was the god of the wind descended from heaven like the quetzal itself to act as intermediary between men and the other gods. It is said that when Hernán Cortés reached Mexico with his shining armor and plumed helmet, the natives thought him to be the incarnation of Quetzalcoatl, a belief which at the beginning helped not a little to facilitate the advance of the Spaniards.

All this is more than sufficient explanation why a bird should be placed on the arms of the country where it is most abundant. But there is another reason: the quetzal cannot endure captivity; caged, it languishes and dies in a short while. It is a bird which seems to have



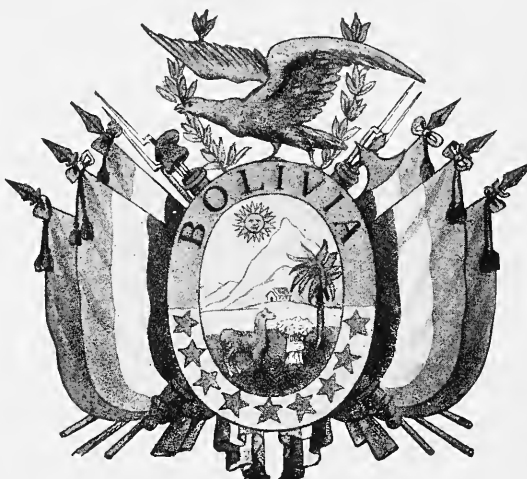
THE COAT OF ARMS OF PERU.

been created for life, and for a wholly free life. Could a nation appreciating its liberty above all else choose a better emblem?

On many American coats of arms the presence of an animal has no such profound significance; it only records the fact that the species is characteristic of the country. For example, there is the guemal which, with the condor, supports the shield of Chile. Until recently, this Andine deer was pictured there with a long horse-tail, because the first naturalist to describe this ruminant, the Spanish Jesuit Ignacio Molina—perhaps relying on incomplete information from the Indians—classed it among the equines and described it as a horse with cloven hooves. That error had singular consequences. On the one hand, many men of science thought that the guemal was a fantastic creature existing only in Father Molina's imagination; on the other, his statements contributed to the belief, which has continued even down

to our own day, that in the Andes there was a native American horse entirely distinct from the horses introduced by the conquistadors. The result was, as far as heraldry was concerned, that when in 1833 the Chilean Government included the guemal in the national coat of arms just approved by Congress it was depicted, not as it really was, but as a horse with cloven hooves like a goat. Only very recently has this mistake been corrected and the deer in question given its true form.

Although the condor which San Martín placed on the arms of Peru was removed, the llama was not; by a law of February 25, 1825, the Peruvian Congress decreed that the picture of this very useful American member of the camelidae should be kept in one of the



THE COAT OF ARMS OF BOLIVIA.

quarterings of the national coat of arms on a blue field, to represent the animal wealth of Peru, just as the other parts of the escutcheon refer to its vegetable and mineral wealth, the former symbolized by the cinchona tree, and the latter by a cornucopia disgorging an enviable flood of gold and silver coins.

Bolivia too commemorates its native species of camelidae on the national shield. In this case it is the alpaca, standing in front of the mountain of Potosí.

Other American nations, instead of including examples of native fauna among their symbols, have preferred to select some of the species which came, during the colonial period, to constitute one of their sources of wealth. That explains the steer on the shield of a country where cattle raising is important, as it is in Uruguay. That Republic

and Venezuela also pay tribute on their shields to the horse, the noblest and most unselfish collaborator that man had in civilizing the New World. During two long centuries, on the Venezuelan plains as on the pampas of the Río de la Plata, the wealth represented by cattle, defense against Indian barbarity, and above all, the winning of national independence, depended to a large degree on the country dweller, the *llanero* and the *gaucho*; and the *llanero* and the *gaucho* could not have existed without horses. Let us hope that, should the men of America ever forget what the horse has meant in their history, they may be reminded by the shields of Uruguay and Venezuela, which have found an appropriate emblem of their own liberty in the figure of an unbridled horse with long tail outstretched in the wind.



THE COAT OF ARMS OF URUGUAY.

FISH IMMIGRANTS FOR VENEZUELA¹

By CLAUDIO URRUTIA

WITH the definite approval of the President of Venezuela I began a few years ago to experiment with introducing into Venezuela fish from the United States, with the idea of breeding them in our country, especially in Lake Valencia, and with the cooperation of the United States Bureau of Fisheries and the Division of Agricultural Cooperation of the Pan American Union I recently carried back fish from the Potomac and elsewhere and introduced them into this large body of water. How they were chosen and personally conducted from Washington to Maracay is told below.

The scarcity of edible fish in Lake Valencia is a recognized fact, so after I had submitted a report, samples of the lake water were sent for analysis to the laboratories of the United States Department of Commerce in Washington. Once the analysis had been made, Mr. M. C. James, Assistant Director of the Bureau of Fisheries, recommended carp and catfish as the only species which could possibly live in the lake. As a result of his expert advice, I sailed for Venezuela in April 1933 with 600 fish of both varieties, but they all died en route.

With the experience acquired in this first attempt, I returned to the United States in 1934, to try again; preparations were made for shipment of another lot, this time richer since, in addition to the two species mentioned above, four others were included: large-mouth black bass, sunfish, crappies, and yellow perch. These last had not been recommended for Lake Valencia, but I took them because I intended to try to breed them with the help of the Government and distribute the fry gratis to anyone having suitable ponds.

The Bureau of Fisheries agreed to place at my disposal for the Government of Venezuela, without charge, 800 fish, whose description is given below. To Mr. Fred G. Orsinger was entrusted the task of selecting them, and he personally, with Mr. J. L. Colom, Chief of the Division of Agricultural Cooperation of the Pan American Union, and the author, helped catch them, some in the Potomac River, others in artificial ponds belonging to the United States Government.

I wish to acknowledge here the competent cooperation extended by the bureau to help me carry out my experiment. Both the director, Mr. Frank T. Bell, and Messrs. M. C. James and Fred G. Orsinger showed great interest in the work and offered unreserved assistance.

¹ This article is an abstract of an article that appeared in "Elite", Caracas, Venezuela, November 17, 1934.

The latter could not have taken greater pains if the project had been his own; he prepared the air apparatus necessary to keep the fishes alive, and supervised their transfer from Washington to the steamer *Carabobo*, which took them to Venezuela.

Mr. Colom also was most helpful; from the beginning he cooperated with the author in the undertaking, accompanying Mr. Orsinger and the shipment to New York. Mention should also be made of Dr. C. M. Breder, assistant director of the New York Aquarium, and Messrs. C. V. Coats and T. H. Howley, experts attached to the same aquarium,



Courtesy of Claudio Urrutia.

LAKE VALENCIA, VENEZUELA.

A part of the shipment of carp imported from the United States was used to stock this lake. It is believed that the carp are propagating.

who were of service in the selection and preparation of the shipment and in the analysis of water.

After the fish had been caught they were taken by truck to the Washington aquarium, shipped by train to New York on September 25, and transferred to the steamer, where they were deposited in 14 barrels especially prepared to receive them. The ocean voyage lasted 10 days. From La Guaira the barrels were taken in a freight car to Caracas, transferred there to another line, and arrived at the Maracay railway station on October 6, 12 days after leaving Washington. The next day they were transferred by truck to the ponds that had been prepared for them.

During the entire journey the temperature of the water was maintained at 65° F. by adding ice to the tanks; for this purpose 10 tons were loaded in New York, an amount which lasted until Maracay was reached. The water from the melting ice was sufficient, and there was no need for drawing upon the steamer's supply which, because it was stored in iron tanks recently lined with cement, would not have been good for the fish owing to its high alkaline content. This fact had been determined by the chemists of the New York Aquarium. The water in the barrels was tested daily, since the presence of too many fish makes it acid, a condition which



Courtesy of Claudio Urrutia.

EL CASTAÑO DAM, LAKE VALENCIA.

Near this point special enclosures were constructed where the imported fish were placed for more than 2 months.

also is harmful. Moreover, from New York until the moment the fish were liberated in the ponds, there had to be a constant injection of air into the tanks by means of an electric compressor. During the train trips the locomotive supplied the air, and in Maracay, while an A-C electric motor was being adapted for the compressor, an air pump was used.

Sometimes United States Government experts are successful in shipping fish great distances without appreciable loss; at others, the same experts lose great quantities, and occasionally, as happened to me in the earlier instance, the consignment reaches its destination

without a single fish surviving, for there are many hazards which make shipments of this kind very uncertain.

The shipment was composed of 10 large carp, 100 small catfish, 150 large and 100 small sunfish, 125 large and 200 small large-mouth black bass, 75 medium-sized yellow perch, and 40 medium-sized crappies.

The mortality on ship board was as follows: Carp 0; sunfish 135, 54 percent; black bass 156, 48 percent; catfish 35, 24 percent; yellow perch 30, 40 percent; crappies 36, 90 percent.

The following remarks are the result of observations made during the trip:

1. Ice can be used to keep the tanks full, for if it is added frequently enough, no additional water is needed.

2. It is imperative that the temperature of the water be kept between 60° and 70° F.

3. The tanks may be of wood, but the kind of barrel in which this shipment was made is not wholly satisfactory because there was insufficient light for observation.

4. The supply of air, which is introduced into each tank by a rubber tube connected with the main tube of the compressor, must be constant.

5. The high percentage of mortality among the crappies shows the lack of hardiness of this fish and how poorly adapted it is to our tropical climate. The death of so many sunfish was probably due to the darkness in which they traveled.

6. The large number of fish as compared with the size of the container in which they were shipped must also be taken into consideration.

According to Dr. Alfredo Jahn, who has been studying Lake Valencia for more than 40 years, and compiling data from other authors, the surface of the lake has varied from 1,350 to 1,360 feet above sea level in a period of 20 years (1900-20). Its greatest depth is 165 feet, and it is a little more than 30 miles long. It contains 22 islands, the largest, Burro Island, being three miles long, and is fed by 22 rivers.

There are two great obstacles to the plan of filling Lake Valencia with carp: first, the voracity of the baba and the guabina, the latter, because its food is almost exclusively other fish and it has a great appetite, perhaps being more to be feared; and second, the parasites to which A. S. Pearse refers in *The Fishes of Lake Valencia, Venezuela*, although, according to him, these are not numerous.

The present plan is to construct large enclosures, protected against voracious species, at selected sites in the lake itself. From these ponds the fry would be taken when sufficiently developed; after they

have been examined bacteriologically and some marked (at present celluloid tabs are used, inserted in lateroabdominal incisions), they will be liberated in the lake in great quantities, possibly 100,000 annually, the number to be decided at the time.

Statistics will be kept as to the growth of the fish in the ponds, the number liberated, and bacteriological conditions—in other words, the study will be carried on according to the most modern methods.

This plan has had the good fortune to win the sympathy and support of the Chief Executive of Venezuela and of the United States Bureau of Fisheries—which has already offered a new lot of fish for an early shipment—as well as the enthusiastic collaboration of such scientists, all members of the Venezuelan Society of Natural Sciences, as Drs. Alfredo Jahn, Juan Iturbe, and Carlos Henrique Maury, my fellow student and old friend.

As this number of the BULLETIN went to press, word was received from the author that the experiment proved so successful that his Government sent him again to the United States to arrange for another and larger shipment. Señor Urrutia was in Washington in January and planned to leave with the new selection the following March.

THE WORLD'S SOUTHERNMOST CITY

By ROBERT A. GRINSEL

Cruise Director, Malolo

PUNTA ARENAS, the southernmost city on the globe, is but a name to most persons, no matter how travelled they may be. It lies on the Straits of Magellan in Chile, far distant from the present well-beaten routes of tourists. Late last year 375 passengers making a cruise on the *Malolo* had the unusual privilege of visiting Punta Arenas on their way around South America. Many of them entirely changed their views of this region. They found magnificent scenery and a thriving, substantial city, and learned that many Scotch, Czechs, and Spaniards have selected this far-away spot for their home. Other travelers will doubtless come to discover the beauty and interest of southern South America.

The *Malolo* entered the Straits at Evangelista about noon on October 5, to begin on an afternoon of bright sunshine a scenic trip of 320 miles through one of the world's most beautiful sea channels. The course is extremely winding and varies from 4 to 16 miles in width. The western section, between Evangelista and Punta Arenas,



Courtesy of Robert A. Grinsell.

THE MAIN PLAZA, PUNTA ARENAS.

The world's southernmost city is a modern town of about 30,000 inhabitants.

affords amazing views of large mountains powdered with snow and ponderous glaciers sliding down to the water's edge. For rare beauty and grandeur of scenery it would be hard to find, or imagine, anything so lovely in all the world.

As the channel wound its way through this mountainous territory, now and again the ship would pass over a peaceful, smooth surface of jade water, in which was reflected a towering snow-capped mountain peak. One of the most beautiful of these mirrored pictures is Sarmiento.

The boat reached Punta Arenas in the late evening and went to anchorage for the night. On the following morning, shortly after dawn, another clear day of bright sunshine was in prospect. The city presents a very attractive picture from the deck of a ship in the harbor, and spreads along the shore and back into the hills in such a way as to make it appear larger than it really is. On a first view almost any newcomer would be likely to estimate the population at about 45,000, but according to official figures it is about 30,000. A great wharf in course of construction, apparently about half finished, occupies the center of the harbor picture. It is so solid and broad that it looks like a wharf one would expect to see at a port three times the size of Punta Arenas.

The first interesting sight that attracts the visitor going ashore is the Plaza Muñoz Gamero, with the magnificent monument to Fernando de Magallanes, commonly known in English as Magellan. This is a fitting and worthy memorial to the immortal navigator of 1520 who, on one of the greatest voyages in the annals of history, discovered the straits which bear his name. In a building adjoining

MONUMENT TO MAGELLAN.

Occupying the center of the main plaza in the city is the monument to the intrepid navigator, Magellan, who in 1520 discovered the Straits which bear his name.



Courtesy of Robert A. Grinsel.

the church the priests have collected a very interesting display of specimens of birds and animals, as well as other curiosities of Magallanes Territory.

At this point a visitor may begin to wonder where the penguins are, since here one is in their native waters. It is a disappointment to find out that there are none of these quaint birds near Punta Arenas,

but that it is necessary to go out into the country a distance of fifteen or twenty miles to see them.

It is said that Punta Arenas boasts of fifteen millionaires; some of the handsome residences of the city would seem to support this statement. Business and prices for wool and mutton were good in 1934, according to local reports. These are the principal sources of revenue in Magallanes Territory. Some of the estancias have enormous flocks of fine sheep. One of the interesting and unusual opportunities a visitor may have is a chance to see a flock of 80,000 sheep, all huddled together in a solid block for the night. Most attractive woolen



From Robert Gerstmann's "Chile."

A SHEEP RANCH IN SOUTHERN CHILE.

Of unusual interest in Magallanes Territory are the enormous flocks of sheep, which represent the wealth of that region.

articles are on sale in the shops, as well as huanaco, fox and other fine furs.

The weather is reported to be quite temperate during the late spring, the summer, and the early autumn, which is from September to April. The summer season, however, is not long enough to grow and harvest any grain crops.

Punta Arenas has a lively social life. A few days before our visit there was a very exciting foot-ball match between the British Athletic Club team and Scout "A". At the same time bridge drives were going on, and the Magallanes Golf Club was celebrating a brilliant finish to its season.

Although the eastern part of the straits, from Punta Arenas to the Atlantic Ocean, is not equal to the western section in grandeur, it is nevertheless very interesting.

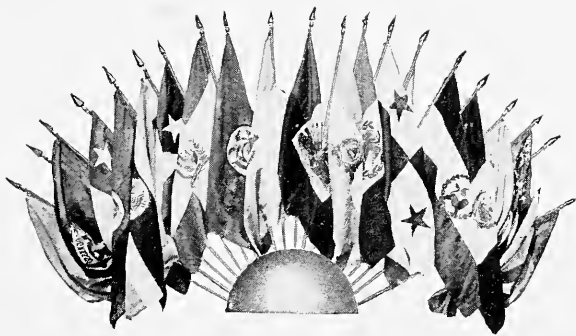
While in this far southern locality the three hundred and seventy-five Americans aboard the *Malolo* took advantage of the opportunity to communicate with Admiral Byrd at his advance base. Admiral Byrd replied in a suitable way, and the incident was recorded as a pleasant memory of the cruise.



Courtesy of Robert A. Grinsel.

THE STRAITS OF MAGELLAN.

This mountain, mirrored in the quiet waters of an inlet, is typical of the rugged grandeur of the Straits of Magellan.



PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Recent acquisitions.—Since the last publication of these notes, the Library has added to its shelves two large shipments of books from the Chilean National Library. The first contained twenty-two volumes and thirty pamphlets and the second, twenty-eight volumes and twenty-four pamphlets. Besides general literature, there were works on history, social science and finance, governmental reports, theses on various topics, and some scientific studies. Among the outstanding volumes were: *El mestizo Alejo*, by Víctor D. Silva; *La Mancha de Don Quijote*, by Augusto D'Halmar; volume I of *Anotaciones al código sanitario*, by Víctor Grossi; *Sistemas unicameral y bicameral*, by J. Guzmán Dinator; the 1935 national budget; *Santiago: calles viejas*, by Sady Zañartu (listed below); *Características de la propiedad minera*, by J. Díaz Salas; *Sindicalismo*, by Aníbal Pincheira Oyarzún; *Volcán Quizapú*, by Luis de la Cerda S.; *Contribución al estudio de las hojas medicinales que deberían figurar en la futura "Farmacopea chilena"*, by Osvaldo Oelchers von B.; *El concepto de soberanía ante el derecho internacional*, by Isidoro Vázquez Vargas; *Primera convención de la Confederación de la producción y del comercio*; *Conclusiones y trabajos del Congreso de minería de Copiapó*, 1934; *Cobrizos, blancos y negros*, by Víctor Larco Herrera; *El bombardeo de Valparaíso*, by Joaquín Edwards Bello; *Panorama de la literatura actual*, by Luis Alberto Sánchez; and *Lecturas araucanas*, by Fray Félix José de Augusta (listed below).

Other new books received included:

The foreign debt of the Argentine Republic, by Harold Edwin Peters. . . . Baltimore, The Johns Hopkins press, 1934. ix, 186 p. tables, diagrs. 21½ cm. (Johns Hopkins university studies in historical and political science, Extra

volumes, new ser., no. 21.) ["The purpose of this study is to examine the export of capital as related to the finances of the Argentine Republic. . . ."—preface. The several chapters of this study, presented as a Ph. D. thesis, cover I) the foreign debt to 1880; II) the foreign debt, 1880–1914; III) financing Argentina through the war period; IV) post-war finances, 1921–28; and V) the crisis in Argentina. A three-page bibliography lists the official documents, books, pamphlets, and periodicals that the author consulted.]

Lecciones de derecho internacional público, por el Dr. Isidoro Ruiz Moreno. . . . Buenos Aires, El Ateneo, 1934. 2 v. 24 cm. [Professor Ruiz Moreno, of the University of Buenos Aires, has written other works on international and other law and on social sciences. In this long treatise, his latest work, he discusses the general concepts of the subject, the place of international law in the Americas, international law on land and sea and in the air, administrative law in its relation to international law, and diplomatic functionaries in their relation to international law, and gives many examples of the workings of international law bodies in effecting arbitrational, cooperative, economic and other settlements.]

Recuerdos históricos; "Los Taboada"; luchas de la organización nacional; documentos seleccionados y comentados por Gaspar Taboada. . . . Buenos Aires, Imprenta López, 1929–33. 2 v. [to date] plates, ports., facsim. (part fold.) 20 cm. [The Taboada family has been important in the history of the Argentine Republic ever since its beginnings. This is especially true of the region included in the present Province of Santiago del Estero, of which Don Manuel was elected Governor in 1851. Señor Gaspar Taboada has collected letters and made excerpts from official reports to indicate the place of the family in the life of the Republic.]

Elementos de estatística geral com especial referência às suas aplicações à psicologia, biologia e economia [por] Milton da Silva Rodrigues. . . . [São Paulo] Companhia editora nacional, 1934. xi, [4], 388 p. tables, diagrs. 20 cm. (Biblioteca pedagógica brasileira. Série iv, vol. vi. Iniciação científica.) [Professor Milton da Silva Rodrigues, a civil engineer and professor at the University of São Paulo, has here written a compendium of the principal methods and techniques of statistical surveys. He shows how to arrive at frequencies, curves, correlations, and probabilities. A six-page bibliography is appended.]

Santiago: calles viejas [por] Sady Zañartu. Historias de cuando sus nombres salieron del barro materno con la fuerza de lo que ha de vivir porque daba el pueblo su agua de bautismo. . . . Santiago, Nascimento, 1934. 176 p. illus. 25 cm. [Señor Sady Zañartu has written several other books, including novels of Chilean life. This recent work, which brings to light the history of the old streets of the capital, touches a theme dear to the hearts of Santiaguinos. It will also be appreciated by students of the social life and customs of the country, since Señor Zañartu did much research in source material before writing these interesting essays.]

Lecturas araucanas; auto-retrato del araucano, vctera et nova, por Fray Félix José de Augusta con la colaboración de Fray Sigifredo de Fraunhäusl. Segunda edición, aumentada y enmendada. Padre Las Casas, Imprenta y editorial "San Francisco", 1934. 1 pl., ix p., 1 l., 339, iv p. front., plates. 27½ cm. [This work was first written (1910) as an aid to missionaries in the Araucanian territory by providing for them an easy and accurate introduction to the Araucanian language, practical enough for the conversational purposes of the missionaries. The selected passages, which are preceded by a brief phonetic guide, are printed in both Araucanian and Spanish, in parallel columns; the material presented describes Araucanian customs and gives modern and folk tales and songs.]

Raza chilena: libro escrito por un chileno y para los chilenos [por] Nicolás Palacios. Segunda edición. [Santiago de Chile] Editorial chilena, 1918. 2 v. 22 cm. Contents: Primera parte: Etnogenia, Orígenes de la sangre chilena. Segunda parte: El pueblo chileno y su lengua. Tercera parte: Etnografía. Cuarta parte: Criminalidad, Moralidad. Quinta parte: Territorio y demografía. Sexta parte: Desigualdad mental de las razas humanas. Séptima parte: Colonización. [As the contents indicate, this work explains the background and nature of Chilean national characteristics. Though more popular than scientific, this much-discussed book brought the author such acclaim, both after its first publication in 1904 and after the appearance of the second edition, that in 1926 a monument was erected in his honor.]

Historia crítica y social de la ciudad de Santiago, 1541-1868 [por] Benjamín Vicuña Mackenna. Segunda edición. Santiago de Chile, Editorial Nascimento, 1924-26. 2 v. 23½ cm. [This long history of Santiago de Chile, by the author of many valuable Chilean historical works, is a standard reference book for the period it covers.]

Bogotá. La literatura colombiana a mediados del siglo XIX. Dos ensayos por Antonio Gómez Restrepo. Bogotá [Tallerés de Ediciones Colombia] 1926. 177 p., 1 l. 18 cm. (*Half-title*: Ediciones Colombia, t. 20.) [The historical essay on Bogotá contains much interesting descriptive and historical material about the Colombian capital. The second essay, delivered in the Sala Santiago Samper of the National University in 1917, gives brief historical and critical sidelights on Colombian literature. The author has served his country in many capacities—as an educator, man of letters, diplomat, and statesman.]

El libro de Santafé; cuadros de costumbres, crónicas y leyendas de Santa Fe de Bogotá. [Bogotá] Ediciones Colombia [1929] xiv p., 1 l., 262 p., 1 l. plates, ports. 21 cm. [A compilation of essays by various authors. In the preface "G. A." says: "Ni comerciantes, ni aventureros, hicieron en Santa Fe de Bogotá largo descanso. Más bien los frailes . . . hallarían campo suficiente para la plegaria, para la conquista espiritual . . ." The essays portray the social life and customs in the old Santa Fe de Bogotá and in the newer Bogotá. Some old legends are also retold. The illustrations, the majority reproductions of old drawings by Torres Méndez, add to the interest of the volume.]

Código civil, concordado con la legislación y la jurisprudencia del mismo desde el 20 de abril de 1899 hasta el 24 de diciembre de 1933. Recopilado, ordenado y anotado por Eduardo Rafael Núñez y Núñez. . . . Primera edición. La Habana, Jesús Montero, editor, 1934. v. 1: 419 p. 24½ cm. (Biblioteca jurídica de autores cubanos y extranjeros. Volumen XVII.) Contents: Desde cuando rige. Antecedentes de su promulgación. Su ley de bases. Casos en que rige. Casos en que no rige. Principios generales del derecho y artículos 1 al 16. [Dr. Núñez is the author of several other legal treatises, including one on administrative law now in its thirteenth edition, another on international law, and several studies based on Cuban laws, the result of his work as a judge. The concordances and detailed index make this a valuable piece of work, a worthy addition to the *Biblioteca jurídica de autores cubanos y extranjeros* published by Jesús Montero.]

The Press congress of the world, regional meeting in Mexico City. With a foreword by Dr. Walter Williams . . . Edited by Frank L. Martin . . . Columbia, Missouri, E. W. Stephens publishing company, 1934. xi, 174 p. front. (port.), plates (ports.) 23 cm. [The regional meeting in Mexico City was held in 1931. The proceedings, including resolutions, addresses, the list of delegates, the bylaws of the Press federation of America (organized by the regional meeting) and other related material, have only recently been published.]

Mycological explorations of Venezuela [by] Carlos E. Chardón . . . and Rafael A. Toro . . . [San Juan, P. R., Bureau of supplies, printing, and transportation] 1934. 353 p. col. front. (diagr.), 33 plates (incl. ports., diags.), fold. map. 23½ cm. (Monographs of the University of Puerto Rico. Physical and biological sciences. Series B. No. 2.) ["The present volume is a continuation of the 'Mycological explorations of Colombia' which was published in 1930. . . . Our scope, in the present volume, is to make a rather exhaustive study of our collections, with the help of various collaborators, in an attempt to produce a starting point for the study of the mycology of Venezuela, which may be helpful in the future to students of this subject," say the authors. They obtained a large number of fungus specimens on their trips to Venezuela in 1930 and 1932, many of them new and some unclassified. Although this scientific survey of Venezuelan fungi does not cover the field completely (the authors mention collections made by others from 1932 to 1934 which "are left for further study"), it is an aid to students of botany.]

Educational psychology and some aspects of education in Latin America [by] Teobaldo Cassanova . . . San Juan, P. R., Imprenta Venezuela, 1934. viii, 169, [1] p. 16 tables (part fold.) 21½ cm. [This survey of educational psychology which covers all Latin American countries except Haiti, was presented as a Ph. D. thesis at New York University. It is of especial value to educators because it is the first report to be published containing the general content of educational psychology in Latin America.]

Proposed inter-American highway; message from the President of the United States transmitting a report prepared by the Bureau of public roads, Department of agriculture, a letter of transmittal addressed to the Secretary of state by the Secretary of agriculture, and a letter from the Secretary of state concerning a reconnaissance survey for an inter-American highway. . . Washington, U. S. Govt. print. off., 1934. ix, 152 p. plates (incl. diagr. (part fold.)), maps (part fold.) 29 cm. (73d Congress, 2d session, Senate Document no. 224.) [This report by the Bureau of public roads is on the reconnaissance survey of the proposed Inter-American Highway from the Republic of Panama to the United States. Numerous plans and photographs in addition to the text show the technical engineering, practicability, and need for this long-awaited project.]

New periodicals.—The following magazines were new or received for the first time during the past month:

Revista de la Asociación de maestros de la provincia. La Plata, 1934. Año x, N° 2, mayo-agosto 1934. 40 p. illus., ports. 27x18 cm. Address: La Plata, República Argentina.

El Caballo; boletín informativo de la Dirección de remonta [Ministerio de guerra]. Buenos Aires, 1934. Año 1, N° 3, octubre de 1934. 119, [1] p. illus. 26½x18 cm. Quarterly. Address: "Dirección de remonta," Junín 956, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Boletín del Museo nacional de bellas artes. Buenos Aires, 1934. Volumen 1, año 1. abril de 1934. 17 p. illus. 23½x16 cm. Monthly. Address: Avenida Alvear 2273 (Secretaría), Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Revista de aduanas e impuestos. La Paz, 1934. Año 1, N° 2, abril y mayo de 1934. [32] p. fold. tables. 31½x21 cm. Monthly. Address: Dirección general de aduanas, Plaza Antofagasta, La Paz, Bolivia.

Boletim do Ministerio do trabalho, industria e commercio. Rio de Janeiro, 1934. N. 1, setembro 1934. 279 p. plates, tables, diags. 21½x14½ cm. Monthly. Address: Departamento de estatística e publicidade, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

Boletim da Federação brasileira pelo progresso feminino; órgão oficial da opinião feminina organizada. Rio de Janeiro, 1934. Anno I, N. 1, outubro de 1934. 8 p. illus. 32½x24 cm. Monthly.

The Monthly bulletin of the British chamber of commerce in Brazil (inc.). Rio de Janeiro, 1934. Volume xvi, No. 178, July 1934. [21] p. tables. 23½x16 cm. Address: Rua Visconde de Inhauma N.º 92, 2º andar (Postal address: Caixa postal N.º 56), Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

Revista do Instituto historico e geografico do Espirito Santo. Vitória, Estado do Espirito Santo, 1934. Numero 7, março de 1934. 274 p. plates, ports. 22½x16 cm. Address: Vitória, Espirito Santo, Brasil.

Acción chilena; la revista de los problemas nacionales. Santiago de Chile, 1934. Vol. II, N.º 6, julio 1934. 79 p. illus., plates. 27x19 cm. Monthly (with extra weekly numbers). Editor: Carlos Keller R. Address: Enrique MacIver, 300, Santiago de Chile.

Boletín de la Caja de amortización. Santiago de Chile, 1934. Año I, N.º 11, 15 de septiembre de 1934. 3 p. tables. 27½x19 cm. Semi-monthly. Address: Huérfanos 930, 3º piso, Casilla N.º 1627, Santiago de Chile.

Boletín del comercio minorista; revista comercial. Órgano oficial del Secretariado del comercio minorista de Chile. Santiago de Chile, 1934. Año II, N.º 16, octubre de 1934. 30 p. illus. 26½x19 cm. Monthly. Address: Puente 583, Santiago de Chile.

Boletín del Servicio nacional de salubridad; órgano oficial de la Dirección general de sanidad. Santiago de Chile, 1934. No. 10, setiembre de 1934. 64 p. tables. 27x19 cm. Monthly. Address: Casilla 41 D, Independencia No. 2, Santiago de Chile.

Chile filatélico; la revista aérea de Sudamérica. Valparaíso, 1934. Año V, Núm. 17, marzo, abril y mayo 1934. 23 p. tables. 26½x19 cm. Quarterly. Editor: Víctor Vargas V. Address: Prat 656—8º piso, Valparaíso, Chile.

Lavaderos de oro; revista mensual editada por la Jefatura de lavaderos de oro (M. de fomento). Santiago de Chile, 1934. N.º 2, año I, julio de 1934. 60 p. illus., tables, diagrs. 27 x 19 cm. Address: Jefatura, Lavaderos de oro, Sección propaganda, Delicias 1191, Santiago de Chile.

Previsión social; boletín bimestral del Departamento de previsión social. Santiago de Chile, 1934. Año I, N.º 1, julio-agosto 1934. 64 p. 27x19 cm. Address: Independencia N.º 2, Casilla N.º 6537, Santiago de Chile.

Tres ensayos de verdadero interés. Santiago de Chile, 1934. Año IV, Núm. 45, abril y mayo de 1934. 15 p. 32x23 cm. Monthly. Address: Casilla 6064, Santiago de Chile.

Turismo; órgano oficial del Touring club de Chile. Santiago de Chile, 1934. Año I, N.º 1, octubre de 1934. 30 p. illus. 27x18½ cm. Monthly. Editor: José M. Flores Muñoz. Address: Casilla 348, Santiago de Chile.

Boletín de la Sociedad geográfica de Colombia (Academia de ciencias geográficas). Bogotá, 1934. Segunda época, Año I, N.º 11, septiembre de 1934. [80] p. illus., map. 24 x 17 cm. Quarterly. Editor: Jorge Álvarez Lleras. Address: Observatorio astronómico nacional, Carrera 8ª, Número 8-00, Bogotá, Colombia.

Repertorio histórico; órgano de la Academia antioqueña de historia. Medellín, 1934. [Fasc.] 6º, último del Volumen XII, Número 134, mayo de 1934. [404] p. illus. (ports.) 24x16 cm. Editor: Emilio Robledo. Address: Academia antioqueña de historia, Medellín, Colombia.

Boletín semestral de estadística de la República de Costa Rica, A. C. San José, 1934. Año I, N.º 1, enero a junio de 1934. 28 p. tables (part fold.) 24½x17 cm. Address: Dirección general de estadística, San José, Costa Rica.

Alma dominicana; revista mensual ilustrada. Santo Domingo, 1934. Año 1, Núm. 2, septiembre y octubre de 1934. 54 p. illus., ports. 31x24 cm. Editor: Emilio A. Morel. Address: Santo Domingo, República Dominicana.

Revista militar; órgano del servicio militar en la República Dominicana. Santo Domingo, 1934. Año I, No. 2, agosto de 1934. 50 p. illus., plates, ports. 29x22½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Mayor Máximo Lovatón P. Address: Santo Domingo, República Dominicana.

Revista comercial; órgano de la Cámara de comercio de Atlántida. La Ceiba, 1934. 3ª época, No. 1, septiembre 15 de 1934. 17 p. 28x20 cm. Editor: F. Morales Albo. Address: La Ceiba, Honduras.

Información bibliográfica general (Secretaría de educación pública, Departamento de bibliotecas). México, 1934. Número 2, 1º de agosto de 1934. 13 numb. 1. 33 x 21 cm. Address: México, D. F., México.

Monterrey deportivo. Monterrey, N. L., 1934. Núm. 1, nov. de 1934. 159 p. illus., ports. 27½x20½ cm. Monthly. Editor: José Navarro. Address: Monterrey, Nuevo León, México.

Planificación; órgano de la Asociación nacional para la planificación de la República Mexicana. México, 1934. Tomo II, Número 3, abril, mayo, junio 1934. 32 p. diagrs., map. 23½x18½ cm. Editor: Enrique E. Schulz. Address: Apartado 1798, México, D. F., México.

Nicaragua. Managua, 1934. Vol. I, Núm. 1, septiembre de 1934. illus. (ports.) 29x21½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Alberto Ordóñez Argüello. Address: Talleres gráficos Pérez, Managua, Nicaragua.

Chitre; la revista nacional—agricultura, industria, comercio. Panamá, 1934. Año II, No. 3, 3 de noviembre 1934. [24] p. illus. (ports.) 30x22 cm. Monthly. Editor: Olmedo del Busto. Address: Panamá, Panamá.

Boletín bibliográfico, publicado por la Biblioteca de la Universidad mayor de San Marcos. Lima, 1934. Año VIII, No. 1, 1º de noviembre de 1934. 15 p. 24½x17½ cm. Address: Universidad mayor de San Marcos, Lima, Perú.

Boletín de la Sociedad peruana de la cruz roja (tercera época). Lima, 1934. N. 1, agosto de 1934. 58 p. plates (ports.) 19½x13½ cm. Address: Sociedad peruana de la cruz roja, Lima, Perú.

El Rotario peruano; órgano de los clubs rotarios del distrito 71. Lima, 1934. Año III, No. 21, junio 1934. [74] p. illus., plates, ports., tables. 24½x17½ cm. Monthly.

Acción sindical; órgano del Sindicato médico del Uruguay. Montevideo, 1934. Segunda época, Año XIV, Núm. 1, junio de 1934. 64 p. 27x19 cm. Monthly. Editor: Carlos Mª. Fosalba. Address: Av. 18 de Julio, 1056, Montevideo, Uruguay.

Revista de la Asociación de escribanos del Uruguay. Montevideo, 1934. Año XX, No. 9, septiembre de 1934. [48] p. 27½x19 cm. Monthly. Editor: J. Antonio Marta. Address: Rincón 569, Montevideo, Uruguay.

Elite; revista semanal ilustrada. Caracas, 1934. Año X, No. 479, 17 de noviembre de 1934. 74 p. illus. 27x20 cm. Editor: Juan de Guruceaga. Address: Principal a Santa Capilla No. 6, Caracas, Venezuela. [Office in New York: Joshua B. Powers, 222 East 42nd Street.]

RCV; órgano del Radio club venezolano. Caracas, 1934. Vol. 1, No. 5, octubre, 1934. [16] p. illus., ports. 23½x16½ cm. Address: Radio club venezolano, Caracas, Venezuela.

Revista hispánica moderna; boletín del Instituto de las Españas. New York City, 1934. Año I, Núm. 1, octubre 1934. 80 p. illus., ports. 25½x18 cm. Quarterly. Editors: Ángel del Río, Juan Guerrero Ruiz, M. J. Benardete. Address: Casa de las Españas, Columbia University, 435 West 117th Street, New York City, U. S. A.

PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

CLAIMS AGREEMENTS BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND MEXICO

On January 3, 1935, the Secretary of State of the United States announced the receipt of a check for \$500,000 from the Government of Mexico in payment of the first annual installment due in accordance with the Special Claims Convention signed at Mexico City on April 24, 1934. The claims with which the convention deals are those originating in the revolutionary period from 1910 to 1920 and presented by the Government of the United States to the commission established by the Special Claims Convention of September 10, 1923. Instead of international adjudication in each case, as provided in the 1923 convention—a method found to be dilatory and expensive—the new convention provides for a lump-sum settlement of the special claims of the United States by the payment of an amount representing the same average percentage of liability that Mexico agreed to pay on the similar class of claims to Belgium, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, and Spain. The average percentage of recovery from Mexico by these six European countries was about 2.65. The total amount to be paid by Mexico is estimated to be about \$7,500,000, payment to be made at the rate of \$500,000 per annum. The sum received will be distributed to claimants, on the merits of their claims, by a domestic claims commission to be established in the United States by an act of Congress.

The convention was approved by the Senate of the United States on June 15, 1934, and by the Mexican Senate November 22, 1934. The instruments of ratification were exchanged at Mexico City on December 13, 1934.

On the same date, April 24, 1934, the American Ambassador to Mexico, Hon. Josephus Daniels, and the Mexican Minister of Foreign Affairs, Dr. José Manuel Puig Casauranc, also signed a General Claims Protocol covering the general claims over which the General Claims Commission was given jurisdiction by the convention concluded between the two countries September 8, 1923. These claims include all those still unsettled since the signing of the Claims Convention of 1868, except those growing out of revolutionary disturbances and already dealt with in the Special Convention. The new General Claims Protocol provides for:

The resumption of activities by the agencies of the two Governments for the preparation and exchange, to be completed within a period of 2 years, of pleadings and briefs covering the claims of their respective nationals;

The appointment by each Government of an outstanding national jurist for the examination and appraisal of claims based on the pleadings and briefs presented by each agent;

The conclusion, after the 2-year period referred to above, of a convention for the final settlement of the claims of the two Governments on the basis of the appraisals of the two national commissioners.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE OF CUBA

On October 1, 1934, the Department of Commerce of Cuba, provided for in the Constitution of February 3, 1934, started functioning with Señor Rafael Santos Jiménez as Secretary. Regulations for the new department, which assumed the duties previously held by the Bureau of Commerce in the Department of Agriculture, were issued by President Mendieta on September 21, 1934. The functions allotted to it include: everything having to do with commerce in its relations with the State, as well as the inspection of business enterprises as specified in existing laws; matters pertaining to schools for notaries and brokers and to trade exchanges; the licensing and inspection of insurance companies; the compilation of commercial statistics; patents and trade marks; weights and measures; commercial expansion, information, and propaganda; commercial expositions and fairs; and the development and protection of national business. By another decree-law of the same date the following were transferred from the Department of Agriculture to the new organization: the Bureau of Commerce, with the offices of the director and the Divisions of Banks, Business and Companies, and Commerce; the Division of Patents and Trade Marks; and the Government representative on the Exchange, attached to the Office of Miscellaneous Industries of the Bureau of Industry.

THE CENTRAL RESERVE BANK OF EL SALVADOR

The Central Reserve Bank of El Salvador, established by legislative decrees No. 64 and 65 of June 19, 1934,¹ was designed to perform the usual central banking functions with some adjustment to local conditions to allow for intermediate agricultural financing. While it acts as the fiscal agent of the Government, it is so organized as to be

¹ *Diario Oficial*, San Salvador, June 19, 1934.

entirely free from any governmental or political influence, and will operate primarily for service with possible profits strictly limited. Its organization follows closely the recommendations submitted to the Salvadorean Government by the distinguished British economist, Mr. F. F. Powell.

Prior to the establishment of the Central Reserve Bank there were in El Salvador three note-issuing banks: The Banco Agrícola Comercial, the Banco Occidental, and the Banco Salvadoreño. The Banco Agrícola Comercial, in which the Government had acquired a controlling interest, was converted by decree 64 into the Central Reserve Bank, the other two banks relinquishing their note-issuing privilege in its favor and transferring to the central bank the gold and other assets held against their notes in exchange for assumption of their liabilities in connection therewith. Since the assets held by the former note-issuing banks against their notes and transferred by them to the central bank are to a certain extent not sufficiently liquid to be held by the central bank, they have been transferred to a special trust account secured by noninterest-bearing ten-year Government bonds, which will be retired at the rate of at least 10 percent per annum.

Participating in the central institution are also the non-note-issuing Anglo-South American Bank Ltd. and the Salvadorean Coffee Association (*Asociación Cafetalera de El Salvador*). The latter is a quasi-official voluntary organization of growers and brokers, largely under private control, which acts as the representative of the basic industry of the country. It has taken over part of the duties of the Commission for the Defense of Salvadorean Coffee (discussed in the November 1933 issue of the BULLETIN), which did not become operative because of the opposition of coffee growers and brokers.² The proceeds of the 49.6 percent of the export tax on coffee which was to be devoted to the purchase for the coffee industry of shares in the proposed Bank of El Salvador (see aforementioned issue of the BULLETIN) were used to purchase shares in the Banco Agrícola Comercial.³ With the conversion of the Banco Agrícola Comercial into the Central Reserve Bank, the coffee industry as represented by the Salvadorean Coffee Association, becomes a stockholder in the central bank.

The initial capital of the Central Reserve Bank is 1,650,000 colones, divided into 16,500 shares of 100 colones each. Of the 12,000 series A shares, 6,000 belong to the Salvadorean Coffee Association, and 6,000 to the minority stockholders of the Banco Agrícola Comercial,

² Decree No. 43 of May 28, 1934, which transferred the duties of the Commission for the Defense of Salvadorean Coffee to the Salvadorean Coffee Association, eliminated those provisions of the Coffee Defense Law which gave the commission almost complete control over that industry.

³ Authorized by Decree No. 188 of September 8, 1933.

i.e. "the public". The 4,500 series B shares are divided into three equal groups, one for each of the three member banks (Banco Occidental, Banco Salvadoreño, and Anglo-South American Bank). The law provides that the 450,000 colones obtained from the sale of these shares to the member banks are to be held by the Central Reserve Bank in the name of the Salvadorean Coffee Association; this sum is to be invested in shares of a mortgage bank to be established as soon as practicable.

The outstanding note issue of the Banco Agrícola Comercial, the Banco Occidental, and the Banco Salvadoreño, amounting to about $15\frac{1}{3}$ million colones on June 30, 1934,⁴ has been centralized in the new bank which will replace them with its own notes within a year. Those notes not presented for redemption in that period will lose their value as legal tender but will still be eligible for exchange for another year, after which they will be valueless. The new notes will be inconvertible for the present in the same manner as the old ones under the moratorium laws.

Provision has been made for revaluing the gold transferred to the central bank in accordance with the revaluation of the dollar by the United States, at the rate of two colones for each revalued dollar. The "profit" obtained through this revaluation is to be used "either for the cancellation of the Government debt to the Central Reserve Bank or for the creation of one or several reserve funds or for both purposes at the same time, as may be provided by common agreement between the Government and the Board of Directors of the bank." The bank is to maintain a gold reserve equivalent to at least 25 percent of its notes in circulation and sight liabilities, and provision has been made for protecting this cover when it falls below 30 percent by increasing the bank rate for discounts and advances.

Member banks are required to maintain a cash reserve of 20 percent against deposits. Half of this is to be deposited in the central bank, and the other 10 percent held in their own vaults in the form of central bank notes or coined currency.

The Central Reserve Bank of El Salvador is empowered to perform all of the customary functions of such organizations, with the usual limitations. Local conditions made it necessary, however, to extend to the bank additional privileges relative to agricultural financing, especially for coffee, which is the principal source of wealth of the country. Thus, besides the operations usually performed by central banks, it is authorized to discount and rediscount bills of exchange and promissory notes maturing within 6 months, given to finance agricultural operations or to market crops, as well as to grant short-term loans against movables and against warrants for coffee deposited

⁴ Report of American Vice Consul W. Quincy Stanton, San Salvador, July 25, 1934. The gold reserve against these notes is estimated at about $3\frac{3}{4}$ millions of United States gold dollars.

in public warehouses. Significant among the limitations imposed upon the bank are those forbidding mortgage loans and any loans to the Government except "advances for a limited time to cover a temporary deficiency of budget revenue up to an amount not exceeding 10 percent of the total custom revenues actually collected in the preceding fiscal year."—G. A. S.

UNEMPLOYMENT MEASURES IN ARGENTINA

The National Board to Combat Unemployment (*Junta Nacional para Combatir la Desocupación*) was created in Argentina by Law No. 11,896 of August 28, 1934. It is to be composed of ten members appointed by the President. Each of the following institutions will have a representative on the board: *Cámara de la Bolsa de Comercio*, *Unión Industrial Argentina*, *Confederación General del Trabajo*, *Sociedad Rural Argentina*, *Asociación de Cooperativas Argentinas*, and *Junta de Ayuda Social*. Its duties include the organization of immediate relief for the unemployed and the preparation of a plan of national action for the solution of the unemployment problem. An appropriation of 2,000,000 Argentine paper pesos has been voted for organization expenses.

The law amends one of December 1933 which created a similar body, changing the organizations represented on the board, increasing its appropriation from 250,000 pesos, and enlarging its scope.

Law No. 11,868, of August 21, 1934, provides for the taking of a national census of the unemployed twice a year, during the periods of maximum and minimum employment. The data gathered in this manner will be published annually by the National Department of Labor.

In an executive decree of December 18, 1934, the Minister of the Interior fixed the last ten days of February and August as the periods when such a census should be taken. To be classed as unemployed, a person must lack financial resources and be unable to obtain a paid position despite his capacity and desire to work. People falling in the following categories, therefore, shall not be considered unemployed: The sick and physically incapacitated; minors under 14 and adults over 60 years of age; those who do not want work; individuals working on their own account; strikers; and those whose private income makes them independent of wages or salaries.

The same decree provides that on February 28, 1935, a census of persons employed in the Federal Capital and the national Territories of Argentina shall be taken. Included therein will be all employers and employees, including apprentices, in private enterprises and all those working for the Government.

ARGENTINE WHEAT STATISTICS

The following table giving the amount of wheat grown in and exported from Argentine during the past 15 years is of interest in view of the present world wheat situation:

Production		Exports	
Crop year:	Tons	Calendar year:	Tons
1919-20.....	5,904,575	1919.....	3,286,260
1920-21.....	4,249,287	1920.....	5,007,461
1921-22.....	5,198,556	1921.....	1,704,053
1922-23.....	5,329,995	1922.....	3,802,055
1923-24.....	6,744,276	1923.....	3,721,857
1924-25.....	5,201,979	1924.....	4,384,198
1925-26.....	5,202,062	1925.....	2,993,423
1926-27.....	6,261,624	1926.....	2,034,773
1927-28.....	7,683,000	1927.....	4,225,494
1928-29.....	9,499,716	1928.....	5,295,835
1929-30.....	4,424,628	1929.....	6,613,342
1930-31.....	6,321,836	1930.....	2,213,389
1931-32.....	5,979,200	1931.....	3,638,682
1932-33.....	6,556,000	1932.....	3,441,882
1933-34 ¹	6,972,000	1933.....	3,929,223

¹ Estimated production.

SCHOLARSHIPS AT A CUBAN SCHOOL

As a token of friendship between the peoples of Cuba and the United States, a well-known private school in Habana has this year established two scholarships for young women from the United States. The Colegio Sánchez y Tiant, located on the Malecón, or sea-wall of Habana, is a secondary school for girls, of which Señora Eloísa Sánchez is the principal. Connected with the school is the Seminario Martha Washington, which, under the direction of Dr. José Antonio Taboada, offers somewhat more advanced courses. These scholarships, designated as the "Becas Sánchez y Tiant de Estudios de Español", comprise room, board, and tuition for two students between the ages of 16 and 32, in good health, who have studied the Spanish language for at least 2 years and desire to perfect themselves in it. The scholarships may be renewed, but it is expected that generally the holders will remain only one academic year, September to May.

In recognition of the Latin American Fellowship which the American Association of University Women established several years ago, and the many scholarships and fellowships for Latin Americans which are administered by the Institute of International Education, Sra. Sánchez asked those two organizations to nominate candidates. The

young women who were fortunate enough to be appointed were Miss Ruth E. Thompson of Port Washington, New York, a graduate of Barnard College, and Miss Helen S. Burt of Stowe, Vermont, a graduate of Middlebury College.

From a letter written by one of the students, it is evident that they are enthusiastic about the high intellectual quality of the faculty, the kindness shown to strangers, the beautiful location of the school, and the surroundings in general.

BRIEF NOTES

THE RECOLETA IRRIGATION DAM

The Chilean village of Recoleta with its colonial church, square, and old houses surrounded by gardens and fruit trees has lain since last summer under an artificial lake, the largest in Chile and probably in South America. The lake, 11 miles from the city of Ovalle in the Province of Coquimbo, was formed by damming the Hurtado River. The reservoir has an area of 1,360 acres and stores three and a half billion cubic feet of water which irrigate thousands of acres of agricultural land. The dam rises 200 feet from its foundation and is 800 feet wide at the base. The top, 32 feet wide, is broad enough for a highway to run the length of the dam (2,700 feet), a steel bridge spanning the spillway.

THE CUBAN TOURIST CORPORATION

To coordinate the activities of the Government and private interests in the promotion of tourist travel the National Tourist Corporation has been created in Cuba under the Department of Commerce. It will be headed by a Commissioner of Tourism. Representatives of the Island's cultural, civic, and social organizations; the press; trade associations; clubs; transportation companies; and chambers of commerce will form the Superior Council of 21 members. The Executive Committee will consist of seven members, three of whom will be appointed by the President of Cuba, one by the Mayor of Habana, and three by the council. The Secretary of Commerce of Cuba will be the President of the Corporation and chairman *ex-officio* of the Superior Council and the Executive Committee. The income of the corporation will be derived from the taxes established by the Tourist Law of August 8, 1919, and from others which may be levied in the future; subventions from the national, provincial, and municipal governments; fines for infractions of tourist laws and regulations; and amounts collected by the corporation on its own initiative.

The decree-law which creates the corporation—No. 599 of October 16, 1934—also contains regulations to protect tourists by preventing overcharging and other illegal practices. Imprisonment from one to 180 days or a fine of from \$1 to \$500 or both are provided for violations of these regulations.

FIRST NATIONAL TOURIST CONGRESS IN CHILE

On October 1, 1934, the first National Tourist Congress ever held in Chile opened in Santiago; it closed in Viña del Mar, a suburb of Valparaíso, on October 7. The meetings were attended by more than a hundred delegates representing the Ministries of Promotion and Foreign Affairs, transportation companies, hotel interests, and municipal governments.

The congress, which was held under the auspices of the Ministry of Promotion, was national rather than international in scope, and devoted most of its attention to measures for encouraging Chilean citizens to become better acquainted with their native land. The resolutions adopted dealt with the introduction of travelers' checks in the country, tourist propaganda, highway improvements, railway and ship construction, special facilities for writers and students, travel by air, and the general organization of tourist activities. It was voted that a second congress should be held in Puerto Montt in December 1935 or January 1936.

SCHOOL FOR VISITING NURSES

The Government of El Salvador has established a training school for visiting nurses and social workers. To be admitted, a candidate must be a graduate nurse having a good educational background, or a graduate in sciences and letters, education, or commerce. The course will last one year and the Government will pay the expenses of the students with the understanding that upon graduation they are to serve in any part of the country to which they may be ordered.

NATIONAL BAG FACTORY IN CHILE

The first bag factory to be established in Chile is now operating in Santiago under the name *Fábrica Nacional de Sacos*. Hitherto bags for agricultural and mineral products have been imported from abroad. The capital of the enterprise, 8,000,000 pesos, was entirely subscribed by Chileans. The company employs some 400 workers and has at present a capacity of 2,500,000 bags per annum. It is estimated that to supply the plant with the necessary raw material will require the cultivation of about 2,500 acres of hemp in Chile. Hemp has been known in the country since colonial days and grows well in the central zone.

THE ORDER OF CALDAS

While all the Latin American Republics have conferred national orders upon their most distinguished educators, Colombia is one of the first to establish a special order to reward its teachers. It has been named Orden de Caldas, in honor of the distinguished Colombian botanist and astronomer, Francisco José de Caldas, the companion of such noted scientists as Humboldt, Bonpland, and Mutis in their travels through South America. The order will be awarded by the Ministry of Education to those who have made noteworthy contributions to the advancement of education in Colombia.

NEW EXPERIMENT STATIONS IN CUBA

The budget for the Cuban Department of Agriculture, prepared last September, provides for the establishment of a number of new services, among them an experiment station for animal industry in Bayamo, one for tobacco in Pinar del Río and one for sugarcane in Santa Clara. It also allows for a forestry school, a number of fellowships for students of agriculture, and the office of chief of fairs and expositions, and provides for three agricultural commissioners to be stationed in the United States.

NECROLOGY

JOSÉ SANTOS CHOCANO.—The tragic death of José Santos Chocano in Santiago, Chile, on December 13, 1934, has been deeply felt throughout the Spanish speaking world. He is known as "the poet of America" who translated into impassioned, sonorous verse the history, the psychology, and the natural beauty of the American continent; yet of him Isaac Goldberg has said in his "Studies in Spanish-American Literature": "He is as much bard as poet,—as much epic as lyric,—as much universal as more restrictedly American in the Spanish sense. And through all his labors, early and late, is evident a strange duality of mood, of outlook and expression. . . . He is classic and romantic, most sensibly denying adherence to any artistic creed; he is savage and aristocratic; he is the man of nature, in Rousseau's meaning, and the man of refinement; he is at once the past, the present and the future; he combines power with delicacy; he is pantheistic, yet devoutly and publicly a modern believer."

Santos Chocano, who was born in Lima on May 14, 1875, had written by the time he was only 20 *Iras santas*, *En la aldea*, and *Azahares*.

His *Epopéya del Morro* (1899), an epic poem in which he describes a heroic action of the Peruvian cavalry in the war with Chile, won him a prize from the National Congress. In quick succession then followed *El Canto del Siglo* (1900) a fine secular poem; *La Selva Virgen*, a collection of poems written between 1892 and 1900; and *El Derribme*, a symbolic narrative in verse. *Alma América* (1906), describing the soul of the continent and its spiritual history, established him as the poet of Spanish America, just as *La Epopeya del Morro*, the masterpiece of his youth, made him the national poet of Peru. Another epic poem, *La Epopeya del Libertador*, was written at the request of the Peruvian Government in 1924 to celebrate the first centenary of the battle of Ayacucho. In Santiago, Chile, where Santos Chocano had lived since 1929, he was preparing a collection of nine volumes, the poems in each to form a harmonious whole. Poems picked at random from this collection were to be published in two volumes under the title *Primicias de Oro de Indias*, the first of which, enthusiastically received throughout Latin America, appeared a month before his death.

CARLOS CHAGAS.—With the premature death of Dr. Carlos Chagas on November 8, 1934, Brazil lost one of its most illustrious sons. Born in Oliveira, Minas Geraes, on May 25, 1879, he was only 55 at

the time of his death yet he leaves a rich legacy in the field of scientific research and medicine. Since he won repeated recognition for his work at home and abroad it is unnecessary to enumerate the many honors he received during his brilliant career. Among his achievements, however, stand out his work in the Oswaldo Cruz Institute where he was a worthy successor to its founder, his splendid record as Director of Public Health, and his discovery of the carrier of the disease known today as "Mal de Chagas", for which an international jury awarded him the Shaudim prize for the best work on protozoology and microbiology.

ENRIQUE COELHO NETTO.—Brazilian letters suffered another great loss in 1934 through the death of Enrique Coelho Netto on November 28, at the age of 70. His demise makes the fifth vacancy within the year in the Brazilian Academy of Letters, of which he was a founder. Although he had won renown in many fields of expression—as a novelist, journalist, critic, dramatist, historian, poet, and lecturer—he never was guilty of lowering the high standards of style and diction which he had set for himself. "He belonged," as the *Jornal do Brasil* well said, "to all ages and his genius found expression in all forms. No country was foreign to him, no clime unknown. That explains the fitness of Silvio Romero's remark when he called him a *universal* writer." In addition to obtaining recognition from learned societies and governments at home and abroad, Coelho Netto had won the affection of the Brazilian people; a few years ago, in a contest sponsored by a popular magazine, he was selected as the foremost Brazilian writer of prose.



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BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

PAN AMERICAN DAY



“COMPREHENSION MUST BE THE SOIL
IN WHICH SHALL GROW
ALL THE FRUITS OF FRIENDSHIP”

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D.C.

L. S. ROWE
Director General

E. GIL BORGES
Assistant Director

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

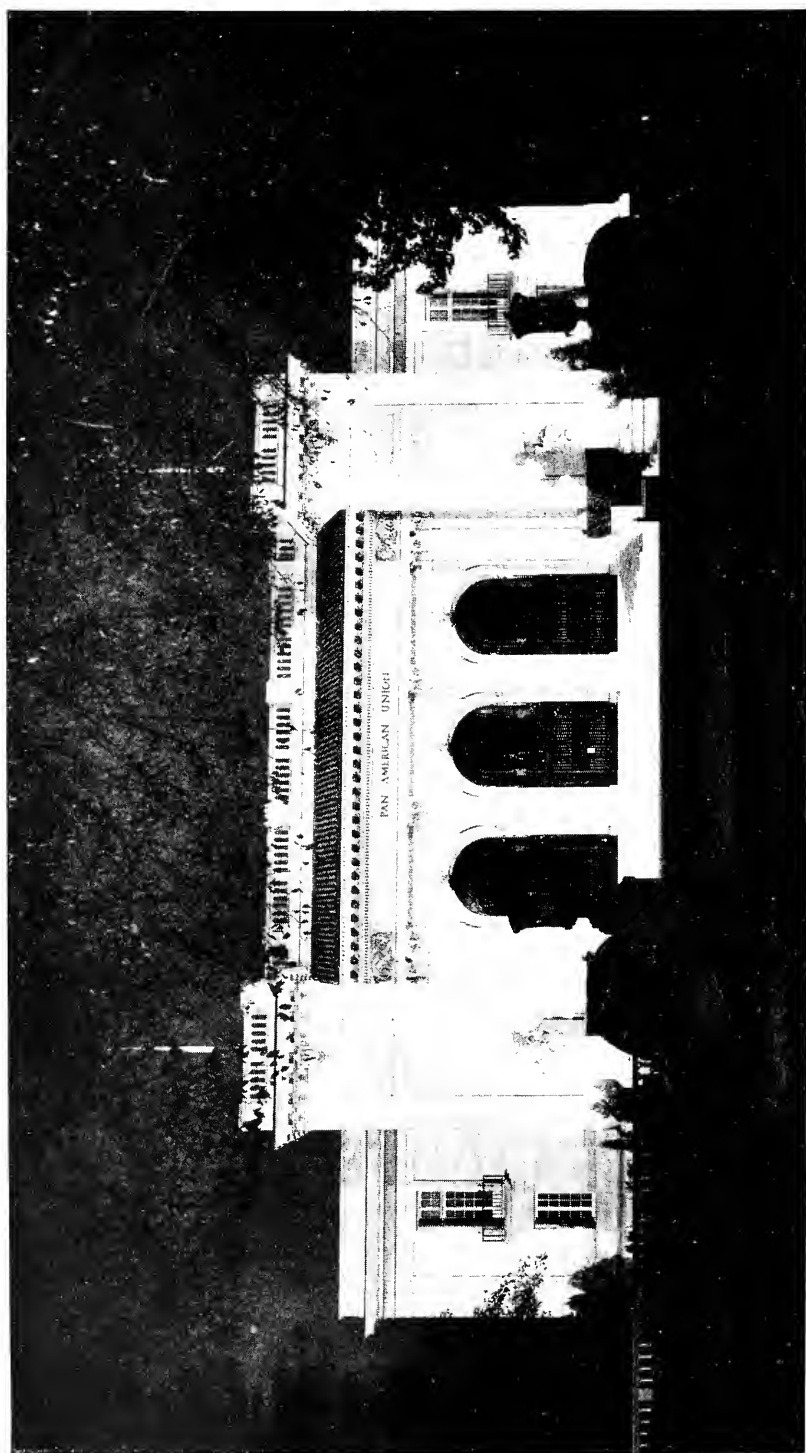
The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION AT NIGHT



Vol. LXIX

MARCH 1935

No. 3

PAN AMERICAN DAY

FOREWORD

By L. S. ROWE, Ph. D., LL. D.

Director General of the Pan American Union

IT IS a matter of unending satisfaction to all those interested in the movement for closer relations between the nations of America that with each year the observance of Pan American Day is acquiring both a broader and a deeper significance. The extent to which this day is being observed throughout the continent is an indication of the hold which the Pan American ideal of friendly feeling and mutual helpfulness has taken on the mind and imagination of every element of the population.

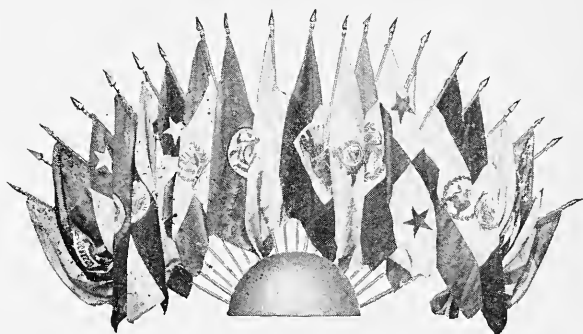
Schools, colleges and universities, civic associations, women's clubs, chambers of commerce, and other groups interested in international affairs each year observe the Day with appropriate ceremonies. It is especially gratifying that in educational institutions the attention of the younger generation is being directed to the importance of the development of closer cultural, social and commercial relations among the Republics of the American continent.

The Pan American movement in its larger aspects is setting a new standard of international action which cannot help but have far-reaching influence on international relations throughout the world. The American Republics are gradually building up a system of which the principle of mutual helpfulness is the cornerstone. It is true that under this system as organized in the Pan American Union international action is taken only by unanimous consent and no attempt is made to coerce the will of any state by sanctions or other forcible measures. When conflicts between two states have arisen, as in the case of the controversy between Colombia and Peru and the present

conflict between Bolivia and Paraguay, there has been evident a sense of continental responsibility for the maintenance of peace which has been impressive and significant. The fact that success has not attended all these efforts in no way detracts from the importance of the general principle that the American Republics are prepared to help one another and are always anxious to contribute to the settlement of any existing differences but are not willing to force either their services or their conclusions upon constituent members of the American family of nations.

There is real inspiration in the thought that on a specific day each year, designated as Pan American Day, the attention of every inhabitant of the American Republics is directed to the importance of emphasizing the principles of continental solidarity and continental responsibility. These are new notes in the international concert and every nation of America may well be proud of the service that is thus being rendered to this continent as well as to humanity.

The Pan American Union desires to avail itself of this opportunity to express to all those who are cooperating in the celebration of Pan American Day a deep sense of appreciation and gratitude. We wish to extend our special thanks to the educators throughout the American Republics who are doing so much to acquaint the younger generation with the larger significance of this day and are thus implanting in the minds of the youth of this continent the service which they are called upon to render to the cause of Pan American unity.



THE AMICABLE SETTLEMENT OF THE BRAZILIAN BOUNDARY DISPUTES

By RAUL D'EÇA

Fellow of the Graduate Council of The George Washington University

IT IS generally conceded that no disputes between nations are so dangerous for international amity and so likely to result in armed conflict as boundary disputes. Great and sanguinary wars have resulted from contested national ownership over portions of territory oftentimes quite small and unimportant; and when one of the belligerents has been able to impose, by the force of arms, its will upon the other, the latter, as a rule, has kept alive its desire for *revanche*, thus originating an endless chain of conflicts.

In this respect the nations of America have, on the whole, given to the world examples of a very remarkable conciliatory spirit, settling most of their territorial disputes in a peaceful manner either by direct diplomatic negotiation or by means of conciliation, mediation or even arbitral decisions; and, among the American nations, Brazil can be said to possess one of the most honorable records, having settled all her numerous boundary controversies with her neighbors in a just and peaceful manner.

When Brazil became an independent nation in 1822, the limits of her vast territory were still undefined. The Portuguese and their Brazilian born descendants, who at first had settled in a few places along the Atlantic coast of the South American Continent from Cape São Roque to near the Island of Santa Catharina, organized during most of the 16th and 17th centuries and in the early years of the 18th, expeditions which penetrated into the continent far beyond the "Demarcation Line", the boundary meridian agreed upon by Spain and Portugal¹ in 1494, passing 370 leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands and cutting Brazil at about the mouth of the Amazon. Those expeditions could not have been stopped any more than were other similar migrations that occurred in other parts of the world in subsequent years. Eventually, the Crowns of Spain and Portugal recognized the futility of attempting to maintain the line of 1494 as boundary between their respective domains in America. That line had, after all, been agreed upon before anybody in Europe had any conception of the true extension of the New World. In a treaty signed at Madrid in 1750 the two Governments accepted the *fait accompli* of

¹ By the Treaty of Tordesillas.

the Brazilian expansion and agreed upon a new boundary based mostly on the *uti possidetis*. But unexpected opposition to this agreement arose in several quarters and in 1761 the work of surveying the boundary was suspended by mutual agreement. Later on, in 1777, another effort was made to settle this matter, but with no more success than before and when in 1801 war broke out between Portugal and Spain as a consequence of Napoleon's determination to enforce his continental system against England—whose ally Portugal was—the treaty of 1777, never carried into effect, was declared abrogated by the Portuguese Government. Matters were still in this uncertain condition when the Portuguese and Spanish colonies of the New World became independent.

In the region of the Guianas there was also some uncertainty as to the real limits of Brazil, both France and Great Britain, particularly the former, contesting with Brazil the ownership of a large area north of the Amazon river.

Brazil, from the beginning of her independent life, endeavored to bring about some agreement with her neighbors concerning her territorial limits. The governments of Dom Pedro I and his son, Dom Pedro II, never for a moment neglected this matter. They declared time and again that they were ready to negotiate boundary treaties with the neighboring nations on the general principle of the *uti possidetis*. They had no intention of increasing their territorial possessions at the expense of other nations. Thus on August 13, 1825, a decree was issued by the government of Dom Pedro I which clearly showed that this was the policy of Brazil. This decree disapproved in the strongest terms, and declared null and void, the acts of the provisional governor of Matto Grosso Province, who on his own responsibility had ordered an armed force to invade the Province of Chiquitos, later part of Bolivia, in order to annex it to Brazil, yielding to the proposals to that effect from the governor of the Province then in rebellion against the patriotic government set up by Bolívar. The acts of the governor of Matto Grosso were declared to be "entirely contrary to the principles of public law recognized by all civilized nations." Brazil, the decree went on to say, would guide herself "by the soundest commands of justice, seeking the greatest good of the nation . . . without injury to the rights of others." Later the Government of Rio ordered the return to its owners of all property taken by the invading forces, since "the aggression has been ours", declared the order in a most candid way.²

This decree is extremely important because it expresses a policy to which Brazil constantly adhered from the time of her independence to the present day in the settlement of her boundary controversies with other nations.

² José Manoel Cardoso de Oliveira, *Actos Diplomáticos do Brasil*, 2 vols., Rio de Janeiro, 1912, v. i, pp. 96-97.

Among the various international problems inherited by the Government of Brazil none was so serious and full of danger for the peace of South America as that presented by the political situation of the River Plate region. Montevideo, and all the territory of present day Uruguay, had been annexed to Brazil as the Cisplatine Province by the Portuguese Government about one year before the declaration of Brazil's independence. The inhabitants of that Province were not



DOM PEDRO I, FIRST EMPEROR OF BRAZIL.

During his short reign (1822-1831) the first efforts to define the boundaries of the country were made.

Brazilians, nor did they possess the Portuguese traditions or speak the language. They justly aspired to set up an independent government of their own. In 1825 the immortal Thirty-Three, led by Lavalleja, landed in Uruguay and the whole country arose at once in rebellion against foreign rule. The ensuing war, in which Brazil became involved due to a situation which she had inherited from Portuguese imperialism, was extremely unpopular throughout the

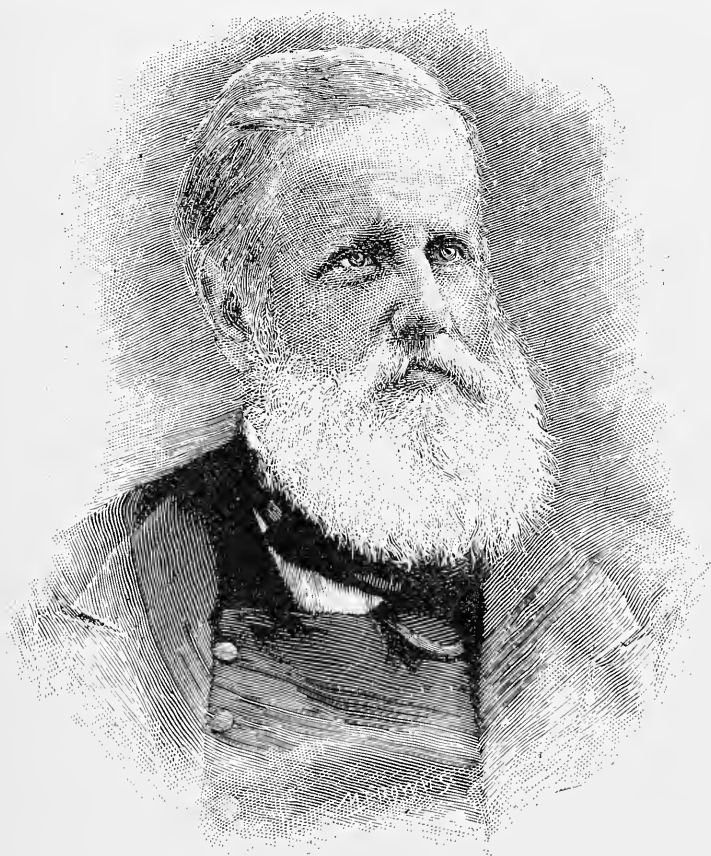
Brazilian Empire and a considerable portion of its population sympathized with the purposes of the Uruguayan patriots.

We shall not go into details concerning this struggle. It may suffice to say that peace was at last signed at Rio in 1828 and Uruguay recognized as a free and independent nation. In the same year a convention was signed by Generals Sebastião Barreto, commander of the Brazilian troops, and Fructuoso Rivera, commander of the Uruguayan troops, temporarily establishing the boundary between the new nation and Brazil by the Quarahim and Jaguarão rivers, Brazil retaining, however, exclusive rights of navigation in the two rivers mentioned as well as in Mirim Lake, an important body of water between the two countries.

As early as 1845, Dr. Santiago Vásquez, Uruguayan Minister at Rio, endeavored, although without success, to induce the Brazilian Government to recognize that Uruguay had the right of navigation on the rivers and lake above mentioned. Five years later negotiations were opened in Rio for a definitive boundary treaty between the two nations. A treaty was finally signed on October 12, 1851, by André Lamas, the distinguished Uruguayan plenipotentiary, and Honório Hermeto Carneiro Leão and Antonio Paulino Limpo de Abreu, the Brazilian representatives appointed for that purpose by the Emperor Dom Pedro II. In this treaty Brazil's exclusive rights to the navigation of the Jaguarão river and Mirim Lake were still recognized by Uruguay, although in a note bearing the date of December 31, 1851, the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Brazil declared that such rights would not preclude Brazil from admitting Uruguayan craft to those waterways in the future, by special concession and under certain political and fiscal restrictions. In 1857, in a treaty of commerce and navigation signed between the two countries, Brazil went still farther and recognized, in principle, the convenience of opening the navigation of the Jaguarão river and Mirim Lake to boats flying the Uruguayan flag. But this concession was not considered sufficient by the Uruguayan Government and the treaty failed to be ratified.

After that the Uruguayan Government made several other attempts to obtain accession to the waterways above mentioned. It was not, however, until 1907 that José Maria da Silva Paranhos, better known as the Baron of Rio Branco, settled the question in a satisfactory manner to both parties. In that year the eminent Uruguayan diplomat, Dr. Carlos María de Pena, was able to negotiate with the Baron of Rio Branco a treaty, signed on October 30, 1909, whereby Brazil ceded a small portion of territory on the banks of Mirim Lake and the Jaguarão river and granted Uruguay the rights of navigation on the same. This privilege was extended in 1913 to the São Miguel river.

This generous concession on the part of Brazil was received in Uruguay and, in general, in all the American countries, with sincere joy. Claudio Williman, then President of Uruguay, had previously telegraphed to President Affonso Penna, of Brazil, declaring that "the day on which our boundary Treaty is signed may be considered as a great historical date in the political development of both countries." Unquestionably the treaty of 1909 showed, as Adolfo



DOM PEDRO II, SECOND EMPEROR OF BRAZIL

It was under the patriotic and intelligent guidance of Dom Pedro II that diplomatic negotiations for the settlement of most of the Brazilian boundary disputes were started.

Berro García, the distinguished Uruguayan publicist, has said, that Brazil's diplomacy aimed at basing its actions on international justice and fraternity, recognizing to small nations rights identical with those of large nations.³

A second difficult boundary controversy confronting Brazil after her independence was with Argentina. The two nations are adjacent

³ A. Berro García, "El tratado de límites de 1909 entre el Brasil y el Uruguay y el pacifismo americano", in *Proceedings of the Second Pan American Scientific Congress*, v. 7, pp. 863-867.

to one another only in a very small section along the Uruguay River and between this river and the Iguassú. In the treaties of 1750 and 1777 between Portugal and Spain, the boundary in this section had been well defined, but the surveying commissioners of both nations had had the greatest difficulty in finding the right rivers as provided by the treaty and later on disagreed as to the location of some of them.

The question was in suspense until 1857, when José Maria da Silva Paranhos, later Viscount of Rio Branco and father of the statesman of the same name already mentioned, entered into negotiations with the Government of the Thirteen Argentine Confederated States, at Paraná, looking towards an agreement on the matter. On December 14, 1857, a treaty was signed providing for the same boundary as defined in the treaty of 1750 between Portugal and Spain and surveyed in 1759. But this treaty failed to receive the approval of the Confederated Government. In 1876, the Baron of Aguiar was sent to Buenos Aires by the Government of Rio to negotiate a new boundary treaty on the basis of the unratified agreement of 1857, but nothing came of it. The following year the Argentine representative at Rio, Don Luis L. Domínguez, renewed negotiations on this matter and offered to settle the controversy by a division of the disputed territory. This proposal was rejected by Brazil and the relations between the two countries became somewhat tense until 1885, when Dr. Leonel M. de Alencar, Envoy Extraordinary of Brazil, and Don Francisco J. Ortiz, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Argentina, signed a treaty providing for the survey of the disputed area by a joint commission. This treaty also provided that after the survey the two nations should endeavor to settle the dispute in a friendly manner, taking as a basis the results of the survey.

While this survey was still going on, the Argentine representative at Rio, Don Enrique B. Moreno, proposed the division of the disputed territory, adopting as boundary a line half way between the boundaries claimed by the respective Governments. This suggestion was again rejected by Brazil, but a treaty was agreed upon and signed by the two parties providing that if an agreement could not be reached between them within a certain time, the question would be submitted to the arbitration of the President of the United States or any other American Government if the former declined to act as arbiter in the controversy.

Before the survey had been finished Brazil became a Republic; the Argentine Government was the first to recognize the new régime in Brazil. Then the Argentine representative at Rio entered into negotiations with the new Brazilian Minister of Foreign Affairs, Quintino Bocayuva, looking towards a treaty of limits, again offering to settle the controversy by a division of the disputed territory. This offer was now accepted by the Provisional Government of Brazil and at the invitation of Dr. E. S. Zeballos, then Minister of Foreign Affairs of

Argentina, the Brazilian Minister of Foreign Affairs departed for Montevideo to sign the treaty which had been negotiated. This treaty was signed on January 25, 1890, amidst great rejoicing, but when its text was made public in Brazil, popular sentiment manifested itself very strongly against it and the Brazilian Congress refused to ratify its provisions.

Under the circumstances, the two Governments, as previously agreed, addressed themselves to President Grover Cleveland requesting him to act as arbiter in the dispute. This task having been accepted by the President of the United States, the two contesting parties set themselves to prepare their arguments. The case of Brazil was prepared by the Baron of Rio Branco and that of Argentina by Dr. Zeballos. Both based their respective claims on extensive historical researches and produced documents of great authority. The arbiter was assisted in his work by the First Assistant Secretary of State, Edwin F. Uhl, and the award delivered to the representatives of the two countries, in the name of President Cleveland, by the then Secretary of State, Honorable W. Q. Gresham, on February 6, 1895. The boundary between the two contesting parties was declared by the arbiter, after careful examination of the arguments, documents and other evidence presented, to be established by the rivers claimed by Brazil.

Although the loser, the Argentine nation acted in this situation with great dignity, setting to the nations of the world a high example of respect for arbitral awards of which the whole American continent has the right to be proud. Later on, one of the most eminent publicists of Argentina, P. Groussac, for many years Director of the National Library of Buenos Aires, wrote that the Spanish theory concerning the two rivers in dispute was artificial and untenable as could be seen by the "admirable Brazilian exposition" which, he added, if presented a few years earlier as a simple diplomatic *mémoire*, would undoubtedly have changed the general opinion in Argentina and avoided the necessity of arbitration. The award, he declared, had to be accepted in any case by the Argentine nation, but coming as it did in sanction of a sincere, although belated, conviction, of an honorable people, it was received as a settlement based on truth and justice, and did not leave any ill-feeling.⁴

With Paraguay a boundary treaty was signed at Asunción by the Baron of Cotegipe, representing Brazil, and Don Carlos Loizago, representing Paraguay, on January 9, 1872. This treaty was supplemented by another signed at Rio in 1927, by the Paraguayan Minister, Don Rogelio Ibarra, and Dr. Octavio Mangabeira, then Minister of Foreign Affairs of Brazil.

⁴ P. Groussac, "Noticia Biográfica de Don Diego de Alvear y Examen Crítico de su Diario", in *Anales de la Biblioteca*, 1900, p. 230.

The boundary of Brazil with Bolivia is an extensive one and was the subject of protracted negotiations. On November 5, 1834, the Bolivian Minister at Rio, General Armaza, submitted to the Brazilian Government a project of a boundary treaty based on the treaty of 1777 between Spain and Portugal with a few changes. This was not accepted by Brazil. After a number of other attempts, a treaty was finally signed between the two parties on March 27, 1867, at La Paz, defining the boundary common to both countries on the basis of the *uti possidetis*. The survey of this line was started some time after, but the War of the Pacific prevented its completion and when it was resumed some errors were found to have been made in the previous survey. While specially appointed commissioners were making a new survey of the main sources of the Javary river, an important part of the boundary between the two countries, there arose a complicated dispute concerning the Acre territory, to the south of the boundary provided by the treaty of 1867 and therefore entirely within recognized Bolivian jurisdiction. Brazilian *seringueiros*, as the rubber gatherers are called in the region, had for some time settled in the Acre province, and considering the taxes collected by the Bolivian Government on rubber exports too high, rebelled against the local authorities. The Government of La Paz sent troops to quell the rebellion. Later on, it entered into a contract of administration with a foreign syndicate in regard to the Acre region. The Government of Brazil protested against this contract, which it considered dangerous to its own sovereignty in neighboring territory. In her attitude towards this question, Brazil was naturally influenced by the fact that a considerable number of her nationals were now under foreign rule and subject—justly so, of course—to punishment for illegal acts. The situation, on the whole, was a most difficult one and full of danger for the peace of the continent.

Eventually, thanks to the diplomacy of the Baron of Rio Branco, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Brazil, and to the conciliatory attitude of Bolivia, a boundary treaty was signed at Petropolis, on November 17, 1903, by Don Fernando Guachalla and Don Claudio Pinilla, representing Bolivia, and the Baron of Rio Branco and Joaquim Francisco de Assis Brazil, representing Brazil. This treaty provided for certain exchanges of territory and defined anew the boundary between the two nations. Brazil engaged to pay to Bolivia an indemnity of £2,000,000 and to build, within Brazilian territory, a railroad from a point on the Madeira river to another on the Mamoré, in order to provide an outlet for the trade of the rubber-producing regions of Bolivia. The indemnity agreed upon was paid by Brazil in 1904 and 1905, and the railroad was built by American engineers and opened to traffic in 1913. It represents a feat of railroad engineering and cost



JOSÉ MARIA DA SILVA PARANHOS, BARON OF RIO BRANCO.

He was one of the most distinguished Brazilian statesmen and was responsible for the successful settlement of most of the Brazilian boundary disputes.

the lives of a considerable number of persons. In 1925 another agreement, signed at Rio by Dr. Felix Pacheco, then Minister of Foreign Affairs of Brazil, and Don Adolfo Flores, Minister Plenipotentiary of Bolivia, provided that the two Governments should apply certain sums of money to the construction of another railroad connecting Santa Cruz de la Sierra, in Bolivia, to some point in the State of Matto Grosso, in Brazil. This railroad has not yet been built due to the general economic depression felt everywhere.

The diplomatic relations between Brazil and Peru were established in 1826, when the first consul general and chargé d'affaires of Peru, Don José Domingo Cáceres, presented his credentials to the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Brazil. The following year the Peruvian representative suggested the negotiation of a boundary treaty between the two Governments and as a preliminary measure the appointment of a commission to study the whole question and gather the necessary data. But shortly thereafter, Don José Cáceres left Rio, and nothing was done to regularize the boundary situation between the two countries. In 1841, however, a treaty was signed at Lima, by the Peruvian Minister of Foreign Affairs, Don Manuel Ferreyros, and the Brazilian chargé d'affaires, Duarte da Ponte Ribeiro, whereby the two contracting parties agreed to enter into negotiations for the purpose of defining their common boundary, adopting the *uti possidetis* of 1821 as the basis of agreement. This treaty was not ratified by Peru, but in 1851 a convention was concluded by the two countries and duly ratified by both, defining the boundary between them. This boundary was not, however, entirely surveyed then.

When in 1903 Brazil and Bolivia signed the Treaty of Petropolis, concerning the Acre territory, the Government of Peru declared that it did not consider extinguished its own claim to part of the territory along the upper Purús and Juruá rivers. For some time an agreement between Brazil and Peru on this matter seemed impossible, but finally on July 12, 1904, a provisional agreement was reached between the Baron of Rio Branco and Dr. Hernán Velarde, the distinguished representative of Peru at Rio, providing for diplomatic negotiations to be renewed on the matter, starting August 1 and continuing to not later than December 1, 1904; the two Governments further declaring their firm intention to resort to the good offices or mediation of a friendly power, or even to arbitration, if unable during the period mentioned to reach a mutually satisfactory agreement.

This provisional agreement was renewed several times and in 1905 the Peruvian Chancellor, Dr. Javier Prado y Ugarteche, entered into negotiations with the Brazilian representative at Lima. Later the negotiations were transferred to Rio, where the Peruvian plenipotentiaries, Dr. Eugenio Larrabure y Unanue and afterwards Dr. Hernán Velarde, carried on conversations on this matter with the Baron

of Rio Branco. Eventually the question was satisfactorily settled by a treaty signed on September 8, 1909. This was indeed another victory for the cause of the peaceful settlement of international disputes in America.

Between Brazil and Venezuela diplomatic relations were established in 1841, when, in a note of February 26 of that year, the Venezuelan Government invited that of Brazil to enter into some sort of agreement on the matter of boundaries. The Brazilian Government had already decided to send a diplomatic representative to Caracas for that purpose. However, the political situation in Venezuela prevented any agreement from taking place at that time.

Seven years later the Brazilian Government, wishing to promote the development and colonization of the Amazon basin, sought to enter into negotiations with the Governments of Peru, Venezuela and New Granada (now Colombia) for that purpose, intending to grant to those countries the freedom of navigation of the Amazon, in its Brazilian section, under the principle of reciprocity. For that purpose, Miguel Maria Lisboa was sent to Caracas and a treaty of boundaries, fluvial navigation and extradition was signed between the two countries on November 25, 1852. This treaty was not ratified by Venezuela. In 1857 another treaty was negotiated and signed by Felipe José Pereira Leal, representing Brazil, and Luis Sanojo, then Minister of Foreign Affairs of Venezuela. The boundary provided in this latter treaty was substantially the same as that established in the unratified treaty of 1852, but its survey was delayed by the unsettled territorial dispute between Venezuela and Colombia.

In 1905 two protocols were signed at Caracas approving and declaring definitive the survey and marking of a section of the boundary between Brazil and Venezuela made in 1880 and providing for the revision, by a mixed commission, of the survey made in 1882-84 by Brazilian commissioners alone. Another protocol signed in 1912 provided for a new marking of another section of the common boundary.

Brazil and Colombia opened diplomatic relations with one another in 1826, when Colonel Leandro Palacio was sent by the Government of New Granada to Rio as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary with instructions to call the attention of the Government of Rio to the need of a boundary settlement between the two countries. A treaty was eventually signed on March 3, 1830, by the Marquis of Abrantes, then Minister of Foreign Affairs of Brazil, and the New Granadinean envoy, adopting the principle of the *uti possidetis* as the basis of a future settlement of the boundary question. Meanwhile the two parties agreed to appoint commissioners to survey the adjacent territory.

A boundary treaty was signed between the two Governments on July 25, 1853, but failed to receive the approval of the New Granadine Congress. Negotiations were resumed in 1859, by Councillor Joaquim M. Nascentes de Azambuja, Brazilian representative at Bogotá, and the government of New Granada, but no agreement was reached then. The government of Bogotá insisted that in the settlement of the controversy, the treaties of 1750 and 1777 between Spain and Portugal as well as the *uti possidetis* should be taken into consideration, whereas the Brazilian government maintained that only the *uti possidetis* could be made the basis of any satisfactory agreement.

In 1881, the Colombian government sent Don Próspero Pereira Gamba as resident minister to Rio with instructions to renew the negotiations for a treaty of limits. The Colombian representative offered a compromise line in the section between the Amazon (here called Marañón or Solimões) and the Caquetá or Yapurá river, which the Brazilian Government was inclined to accept, but the hurried withdrawal of the Colombian minister prevented a settlement from taking place at the time.

After that, negotiations were continued intermittently between the two Governments, but only in 1907 was the Minister of Brazil at Bogotá, Eneas Martins, able to reach an understanding with Don Alfredo Vásquez Cobo, Minister of Foreign Relations of Colombia. On April 24 of that year, a treaty was signed defining part of the boundary common to the two countries. The remaining boundary was left for future negotiation, pending the settlement of the controversy between Colombia, Peru and Ecuador over the region above mentioned. In 1916 Colombia and Ecuador settled their boundary dispute and in 1922 Colombia and Peru settled theirs. The government of Rio protested against this last settlement as prejudicial to Brazilian interests in its own negotiations with Colombia.

Having been informed of this, the Colombian ambassador at Lima, the distinguished diplomat Dr. Antonio José Uribe, advised his Government to authorize the Colombian minister at Washington, Dr. Enrique Olaya Herrera, to request the good offices of the Secretary of State of the United States and to get into touch with the Brazilian representative in order to secure the withdrawal of the Brazilian protest against the Peruvian-Colombian treaty of 1922. Doctor Uribe further suggested that Doctor Olaya be authorized to accept, as soon as the treaty of 1922 had been ratified, the Tabatinga-Apaporis line as boundary between Brazil and Colombia, providing that Brazil would grant to Colombia absolute freedom of navigation on the Amazon and Putumayo rivers, and their affluents, within Brazilian jurisdiction.

These suggestions were well received by the several interested parties and on March 4, 1925, Dr. Hernán Velarde, Dr. Olaya Herrera and Samuel de Souza Leão Gracie, respectively Ambassador of Peru, Minister of Colombia and Chargé d'Affaires of Brazil, met at the invitation of Secretary Charles Evans Hughes, in the Department of State, at Washington. Mr. Hughes suggested that Brazil withdraw her protest against the treaty of 1922, that Colombia and Peru ratify that treaty as soon as possible, and that Brazil and Colombia sign a

A XVII CENTURY MAP
OF SOUTH AMERICA.

Of particular interest is the fact that Brazil is depicted as an island on this map published in 1680 in a record of the voyage of Capt. Sharp.



treaty recognizing the Tabatinga-Apaporis line as the boundary between their respective territories in the area in dispute, and granting to Colombia the freedom of navigation above mentioned. Embodied in a *procès verbal*, these suggestions were accepted by the representatives of the several countries involved and carried out soon thereafter. The Peruvian and Colombian Congresses approved the treaty and ratifications were exchanged at Bogotá on March 19, 1928. On November 15, 1928, a treaty was signed at Rio between the

Governments of Colombia and Brazil, represented by Doctors Laureano García Ortiz and Octavio Mangabeira, respectively, settling the boundary question between the two countries.⁵

To the controversies between Ecuador and her neighbors, Peru and Colombia, Brazil is not a party. On May 6, 1904, a treaty was signed at Rio by the Ecuadorian representative, Don C. R. Tobar, and the Baron of Rio Branco, Minister of Foreign Affairs, providing that if the dispute between Ecuador and Peru were to be decided in favor of the former, the boundary between Brazil and Ecuador should be the same as stipulated in the treaty of 1851 between Brazil and Peru, with the modifications agreed upon in 1874. This boundary is the same as that later agreed upon between Colombia and Brazil, and which has been described as the Tabatinga-Apaporis Line.

The settlement of other boundary disputes to which Brazil has been a party may be briefly summarized as follows: a boundary treaty was negotiated and signed on May 5, 1906 with the Government of the Netherlands recognizing the traditional boundary between Brazil and Dutch Guiana; in the case of France and Great Britain, after long and complicated negotiations concerning the boundary of Brazil with French and British Guianas, it was decided to submit the controversies to the arbitration of the Swiss Confederation and the King of Italy, respectively. This was done in 1900 and 1904, with complete victory for Brazil in the first case and only partial in the second.

Thus, in a truly American spirit of conciliation, guided by the soundest commands of justice, seeking the greatest good of the nation, without injury to the rights of others—as expressed in the decree of 1825 mentioned in the beginning of this paper—did the Government of Brazil settle its boundary disputes with the neighboring nations.

⁵ Antonio José Uribe, *Cuestiones Internacionales*, Bogotá, 1929.



ANCIENT CIVILIZATIONS OF AMERICA

By VINCENZO PETRULLO, Ph. D.

University Museum, University of Pennsylvania

TEN thousand years ago, or possibly earlier, primitive Asiatic peoples seeking new hunting grounds discovered America. Their subsequent history up to the time of the arrival of the Europeans was rich and eventful. Some groups rose from this early primitiveness to high barbarism. Numerous inventions were made, wild plants were brought under cultivation, the arts developed aesthetic values of their own, and numerous tribal groups went so far as to develop national consciousness to the extent of building empires.

Unfortunately, the details of this dramatic story are unknown. There exists no extensive native literature on which we could draw for a clear picture of the course of civilizations in the New World. Writing was but crudely developed and, even in this form, was known only to a few groups. Many records that did exist either were destroyed by the European invaders or have become undecipherable. The task of reconstructing the story of the ancient civilizations of America falls, therefore, to the archaeologist who, because he is entirely dependent on what time and the elements have left in the soil, can give us only its gross features.

Communication between peoples is one of the best means for accelerating the progress of civilizations. Ideas, inventions, art styles, technical knowledge are transmitted from one people to another, each profiting by the other's experiences. Civilization has developed most rapidly in those regions where intercourse between different peoples has been most free. This advantage was lacking to the early inhabitants of America, who were separated from the rest of the world by thousands of miles of water. Their cultural progress was dependent entirely on their own efforts.

It seems certain that the hordes that first invaded the New World at that remote time brought with them a very primitive culture somewhat similar to, if not identical with, that of some nomadic groups still existing in some regions of South America. Probably they lived entirely on the hunt and on whatever they could gather in the way of roots and fruits. They practiced no agriculture and had no domesticated animals except the dog; nor did they find in their new country any animal other than the llama that lent itself to domestication. With such a primitive culture man is forced to spend most of his time

in hunting and gathering food. Consequently he can give little attention to the development of his artistic, social, religious and political life. Agriculture, permitting a better control of the food supply, is, in fact, the key to the higher civilizations, and these early inhabitants of America must have waited until they invented it before making any marked progress in other fields.

The array of wild plants which they brought under cultivation is a long and imposing one. Among them maize and manioc are as important in the New World as wheat and rice in the Old World. Of the two maize is by far the more important, and, it can be truly said,



A DOG HARRYING A DEER.

That the dog was the friend and helper of man in America before Columbus discovered the continent is seen from this painting on a Chimu vase found in Peru. The hunter has cast his spear at the deer.

was the basis of the growth and development of civilization in America. Maize grows wild in the dry highland regions of southern Mexico. We suppose that it was there that the plant was first brought under cultivation, and consequently there that civilization was first spurred on to new horizons. In fact, we do know that the most highly developed civilizations of America were localized in the highland belt stretching from Mexico to Chile. Everywhere else economic culture remained in a rudimentary state, though at the coming of the Europeans to the New World, it was beginning to show signs of accelerating its progress in several other regions.

The story of the emergence of some of the tribes from the purely savage state begins with what has been called by the archaeologists the "Archaic" civilization of Middle America. The term "Archaic" does not refer to one homogeneous culture, but to a number brought together over a long period of time. Excavations have brought to light its typical elements. It was a stone age culture, characterized on the whole by well made pottery decorated with incised and painted designs. Small pottery figurines are common and are the source of much of the information we have on this period. They convey some idea of the way the people painted and decorated their bodies with such ornaments as ear plugs, necklaces, bracelets, and anklets. From these archaeological remains we may visualize somewhat the barbaric splendor of the civilization.

Subsequently, there arose from this Archaic stratum civilizations that tended to become sharply differentiated from each other. One became localized in the Valley of Mexico; another in Guatemala and Yucatan; and a third in Peru and Ecuador. The first two localities adjoined each other and thus exchanged many culture elements, but there was no such easy contact with the peoples of Peru and Ecuador. In other regions civilization lagged behind, though by the time the European peoples began their conquest of America, it was making great progress at several places. For instance, in the southeastern United States political organization was very advanced: and in the northwest, though the people lacked agriculture, they developed an art and social organization to a bewildering degree.

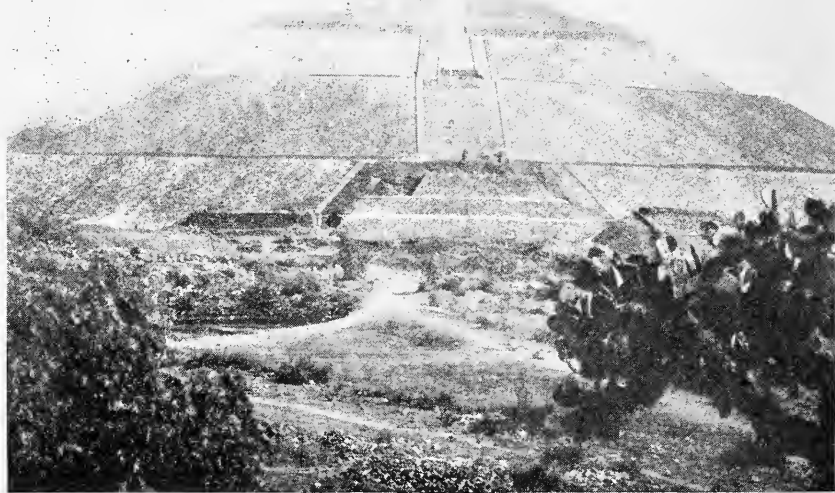
The first people to appear in Mexican history are the Toltecs. Legends are clustered about them, but their origin and history are rather nebulous. The traditional capital of these people was Tula, and they may have ruled over a federation of a number of communities of diverse race and speech. Their civilization was noted especially for mosaic work with feathers and work in semi-precious stones, such as turquoise and jade. Metal working was practiced by them



Courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History.

AN EARLY REPRESENTATION OF THE MAIZE GOD.

This beautiful head, from Copán, Honduras, dates from about 515 A. D., the period of the Early Maya Empire. The sculpture is in the Peabody Museum of Harvard University. The headdress may symbolize the growing corn.



Courtesy of the National Railways of Mexico.

THE PYRAMID OF THE SUN, SAN JUAN TEOTIHUACÁN.

Twenty-eight miles from Mexico City stands the Pyramid of the Sun, 216 feet high with a base approximately 720 by 760 feet; it is one of an impressive group of buildings belonging to the Toltec culture. While it covers nearly as large an area as the Great Pyramid of Egypt (which is about 756 feet square) it is little more than half as high. The purpose of the two was altogether different; the Egyptian pyramid was built by one of the kings for his tomb, while the Mexican pyramid served as the base for a temple to Tonatiuh, the Sun God. Some scientists say the pyramid was built between 1000 and 500 B. C., while others claim that it was no earlier than the third or fourth century A. D.

no earlier than the ninth century A. D., and probably was transmitted to them from the south.

Tradition has given to us the name of an outstanding figure in this rather nebulous period. This is Quetzalcoatl, who may have been one of the last rulers of the empire, but probably also represents one of their gods. He is credited with having introduced culture among the Toltecs and appears also to have taken an active part against their enemies.

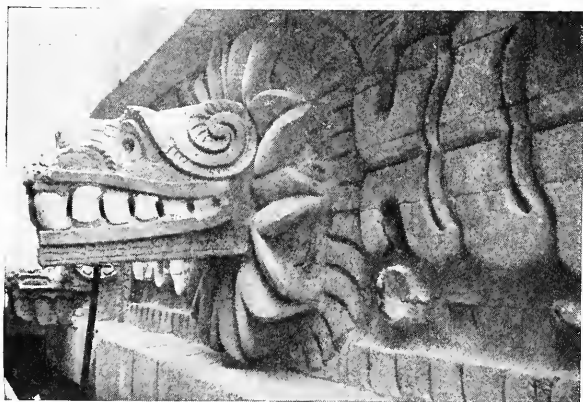
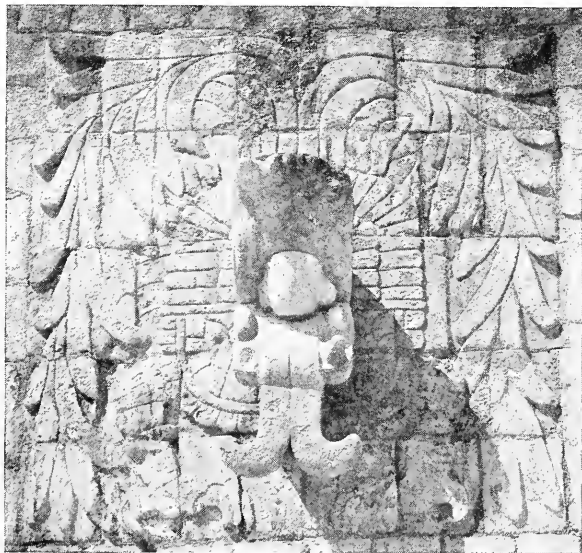
Since writing was an unknown art, there are in existence no literary accounts of the splendor of the various cities of the New World, but oral legend does sometimes give us pictures comparable to those to be found in the early history of the Mediterranean region. It is said, for instance, that the palace of this legendary figure, Quetzalcoatl, was most ornately furnished. One room is supposed to have been decorated entirely in gold and another had its walls covered with jade and turquoise mosaics, another with sea shell decorations, while a fourth had walls of red sandstone decorated with sea shells.

We do not know how long this Toltec empire lasted, but we do know that suddenly the more barbaric people of the north, who were

still more or less nomadic, conquered and destroyed it. The struggle between the invaders and the Toltecs is suggestive of Old World ancient history. According to legend, the struggle appears not to have been so much between the two peoples, but between their supernatural leaders, Quetzalcoatl and Texcatlipoca. In fact, it was not

THE PLUMED SERPENT.

Quetzalcoatl (quetzal-green feather and coatl-serpent) may have been one of the last rulers of the Toltec Empire in Mexico and probably also represents one of the Toltec gods. He is sometimes said to have led the Toltecs against the Mayas in Yucatan. When Cortés invaded Mexico in 1535, many of the inhabitants thought that Quetzalcoatl, fulfilling a legend, had returned. Upper: A representation of the plumed serpent by the Mayas (who called it Kulkán) on the Temple of the Warriors at Chichén Itzá. Lower: A Toltec figure on the Pyramid of the Sun at San Juan Teotihuacán.



Courtesy of the Carnegie Institution.

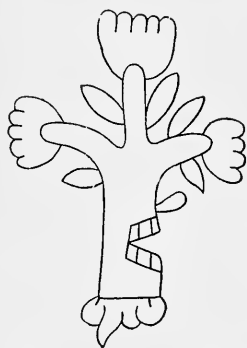
through the superior fighting ability of the invaders that the empire was conquered, but through the superior sorcery of Texcatlipoca who vanquished Quetzalcoatl.

With the fall of the empire the various communities reverted to their original independence and we must assume that each fought for dominance over its neighbor. The newcomers, known as Chichimecs, settled and mingled with the early inhabitants and probably

were absorbed by the older population. A number of cities arose to prominence but do not seem to have formed any strong federation as had existed before.

Later came the Aztecs. In their early history religion played an important role. Their legends tell us that their gods led them in their wanderings and finally chose the place for them to settle. They believed they emerged from underground at a place in the north called Seven Caves, and that after roaming about for some time they arrived at Lake Pátzcuaro. Some of the members of the tribe thought that this was a suitable place to settle, but their priests, receiving messages from their god Huitzilopochtli, ordered them to continue their quest. There seems to have been dissension in the ranks, for a portion remained at the lake, while others continued their search for a suitable

country to settle. Those who at various times disobeyed the oracles suffered various misfortunes. For instance, one morning some were found with their breasts cut open and their hearts plucked out. This legend may be an attempt to explain the origin of human sacrifice among the Aztecs. In the thirteenth century, they tried to settle permanently at Chapultepec, but were attacked by the inhabitants and disastrously defeated. Finally, they settled down at the present site of Mexico City, about 1324 A. D. At that time, the Aztecs were still a weak people in comparison with their neighbors, but soon afterwards, through war and alliance, they became the most powerful.



AN AZTEC PICTOGRAPH.

This representation of an avocado tree in blossom was used by the Aztecs to represent the city of Ahuacatlán, "Place of the Avocados."

While these tribes were fighting for supremacy in the Valley of Mexico and developing their own civilization, further south another people had made tremendous strides forward, a people who achieved great intellectual heights. These were the Mayas of Guatemala and Yucatan. Even less is known about the early history of these people than of those that occupied the Valley of Mexico, but again we may assume that their civilization was built on the "Archaic" civilization, which probably was present in most of the region subsequently occupied by them. The history of the Mayas is somewhat tragic. They attained great cultural heights several times only to fall back and be forced to start anew.

The Mayas did not live in the highlands; they chose rather to denude the humid lowlands of jungle for the purpose of agriculture. Maize was with the Mayas a main food staple as it was with the people of the Valley of Mexico. In some way they learned to develop a new type of maize, which could grow in this new environment so different from the arid highlands.

Of all the peoples of the New World, only the Mayas developed writing beyond the pictographic stage. Unfortunately, the key to the reading of it has been lost and we are able to decipher only the dates. The only native written records we have are the translations of several Maya books made by the Spaniards in the early days of their occupancy of the country.

Ancient Greece is known through its poets, philosophers, military and political heroes. Undoubtedly, such leaders existed among the Mayas but their names and achievements have been lost. The astronomical knowledge of the Mayas was truly exceptional, necessitating a knowledge of mathematics far beyond that possessed by the other people of the New World. The place system and the use of zero are inventions generally admitted to be great inventions in mathematics. Both were known to the Mayas, and they invented them independently of the peoples of the Old World.

A MAYA NUMBER.

$\begin{array}{c} \cdot & \cdot \\ \hline \hline \hline \end{array}$	17 x 400	=	6800
$\begin{array}{c} \cdot \\ \hline \hline \hline \end{array}$	6 x 20	=	120
$\begin{array}{c} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \hline \hline \hline \end{array}$	9 x 1	=	9
			6929

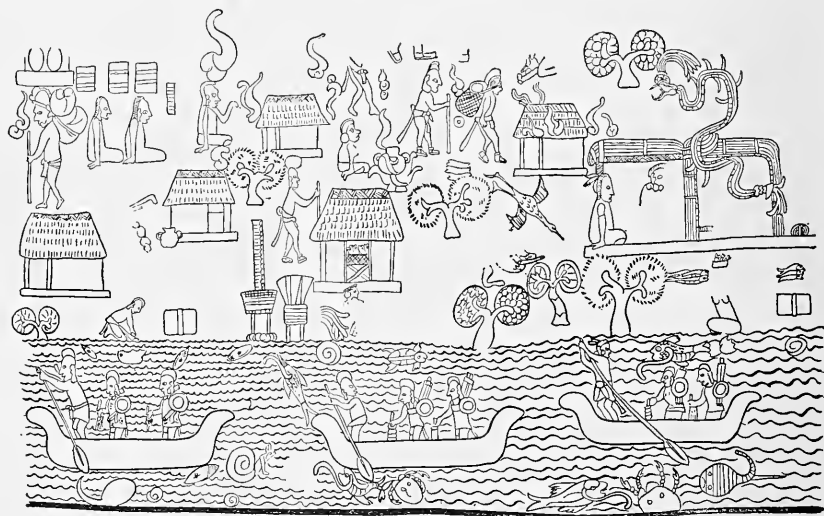
In the simpler of their two ways of writing numbers, the Mayas indicated 1 by a dot and 5 by a bar. They indicated the place of a digit (as we have units, tens, hundreds, etc.), in a column arrangement. The Maya system was based on 20 instead of on 10, as ours is.

The political organization of the Mayas always remained loose; no strong confederacy was ever created. So, we have city states fighting for hegemony from the beginning of the Christian Era, somewhat like the Greek cities a thousand years earlier. Besides fighting among themselves, they were forced to war against the less civilized peoples that surrounded them, and finally they were subdued by the latter.

The first great cities of the Mayas were Tikal in northern Guatemala, and Copán in western Honduras. Later there sprang into greater prominence such cities as Piedras Negras and Yaxchilán. The most brilliant period of these cities seems to have been between 300 and 600 A. D., after which they decayed or were abandoned altogether and the forest closed over them. Yucatan became a new center for the Mayas; there, more isolated from the rest of the country than before, they contributed less to the advancement of Mexico. When the Spaniards arrived, the Maya cities could no longer boast the glories of the previous era, and some had fallen under the rule of the more barbaric peoples of the Valley of Mexico. It is unquestionably true that Maya civilization had exhausted itself by the time the peoples

of the Valley of Mexico were beginning to start on their road to conquest.

In many ways the Mayas were the greatest contributors to civilization in the New World; in such fields as mathematics, astronomy, architecture, and decorative art, they excelled. They had developed a calendar which was more accurate than any in existence before the adoption of the Gregorian calendar late in the sixteenth century by the European peoples. They had developed writing which was a combination of the pictographic and hieroglyphic, with which they recorded historical and religious events, and they sculptured stone on



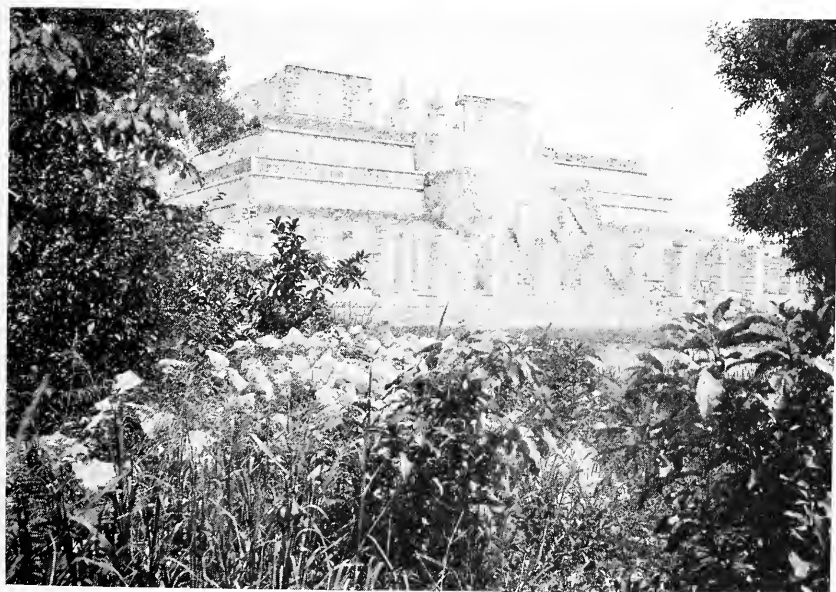
Courtesy of the Carnegie Institution of Washington.

MAYA LIFE AT THE SEASHORE.

A drawing of the reproduction in color of a painting originally executed on an inner wall of the Temple of the Warriors at Chichén Itzá, México. Fragments of this mural were found in the temple débris by the excavators. After being pieced together into a consistent whole, Ann Axtell Morris, of the Carnegie Institution, made a faithful copy in color. It is an example of the art of the New Empire period, a characteristic of which was the depicting of scenes of everyday life.

which the most important of these were commemorated. No other people of the New World can equal the Mayas in these fields. As has been mentioned before, they discovered and used the zero. One may obtain a fair idea of their knowledge and ability in the mathematical field from the fact that they were able to predict eclipses. This also demonstrates their keen astronomical observations and knowledge. Obviously the development of their writing goes hand in hand with their mathematical and astronomical knowledge.

The Mayas have left a great artistic heritage to mankind. They made great strides forward in architecture. Sculpture in stone and pottery beautifully decorated with paintings are outstanding in that they carry artistic feeling to great heights. They were masters of



Courtesy of the Carnegie Institution.

HOW ARCHAEOLOGISTS DISCOVER THE PAST.

Upper: The mound of earth covering the Temple of the Warriors, Chichén-Itzá, Mexico, before it was excavated. Lower: After excavation and replacement of fallen pieces. This beautiful Maya edifice is sometimes called the Temple of a Thousand Columns.



A PERUVIAN INDIAN AND HIS LLAMA.

The llama and the dog are the only two native American animals which have been domesticated. The llama carries burdens over the trails in the Andes.

perspective, foreshortening. Maya civilization had practically run its course by the time the Europeans arrived in the country, but it has left behind it a wealth of artistic material which the archaeologist today is busily preserving for future generations. Their achievements in other phases of culture such as religion and political and social ideas, we are not able to estimate.

In the highlands of Ecuador, Peru and Bolivia, we have the growth of another civilization which in many ways was superior to the others. There seem to have been three great early centers of culture. One centered around Trujillo, another around Nazca, and a third at Tiabuanaco. These may have been contemporaneous and probably had a culture common to all. There are, of course, minor differences, as, for instance, in the style of the art. Little is known of this prehistoric period, but about 1400 A. D. we have the rise of the Inca Empire. The Incas probably domesticated the llama, giving them a great advantage over the other peoples in that they were able to transport supplies to a great distance. By conquest and confederation they gradually built up a tremendous empire which included finally what is now Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, and northern Chile, always in the highlands.

The Peruvians had no writing; their only aid for recording was the quipu, consisting of a number of knotted strings, which reminded



Larco Herrera collection. Courtesy of "Art and Archaeology."

CHIMU POTTERY.

Conspicuous among the ceramic specimens left by the Chimu civilization, which antedated the Incan by centuries, are the remarkable portrait and caricature urns. Left: This sculpture, undoubtedly the portrait of an Indian prince, is one of the finest huacos extant. Right: Here the mastery of the ancient potters is again revealed in this likeness of a warrior.



Courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History.

GOLD OBJECTS FROM PERU.

These objects of hammered gold show the skilful craftsmanship of the pre-Columbian inhabitants of Peru. It is said that the garden of the Inca's palace at Cuzco contained flowers and vegetables made of beaten gold and silver. Most of these objects were seized and melted down by the Spanish conquerors.

them of events or sums. Their astronomical knowledge was crude, being far below that of the Mayas. They excelled in architecture and engineering projects, and political development. They were able to weld a tremendous empire under strong centralized government. They built roads and bridges over chasms and ravines, over which they transported large blocks of stone that went into the construction of their temples and palaces.

Social and political organizations were highly developed. It was a country ruled by an absolute despot, yet based on communal effort that has won the admiration of students. The individual was completely submerged for the sake of the community; he served the state and the state in return took proper care that he knew no want. This advantage was mitigated by the fact that he was confined in his habitat, since he was not permitted to travel about freely, though extensive and beautiful roads linked every portion of the empire. These roads were used for military purposes and for the traveling of the Incan ruling class. The common man could not leave his native village.

The splendor of the Incas was beyond European imagination. The quantities of worked gold and precious stone found in possession of the ruling class astonished the conquerors of the country. Their textiles and beautifully painted pottery have won the admiration of art lovers everywhere. Proficient in architecture, they built huge palaces, temples, and fortresses of enormous blocks of cut stone wonderfully fitted together.

No civilization in America developed beyond the stone age. The working tools and fighting implements were of stone with few exceptions. Copper was known and used, but it is so inferior to stone for working that it was used only for ornaments or ceremonial objects. In Peru copper was mixed with tin to form a bronze; this art, however, was not sufficiently developed to be of great cultural value. Gold and silver were mixed and beaten into beautiful ornaments, the bulk of which unfortunately found their way to European melting pots.

It has been mentioned that the misfortune of the American aborigines was that they were isolated from the rest of the world. However, among themselves there was a certain amount of commerce, and their inventions were diffused among themselves along the trade routes. The technique of working gold is a good illustration of this intercommunication. It is generally believed that it was invented in northern South America and from there it was diffused in every direction. Many other cultural elements were diffused in similar fashion.

Geographical environment played an important role in the development of these civilizations. In parts of America other than the

RUINS OF MACHU
PICCHU, PERU.

Occupying an impregnable site on a mountain ridge and slopes at an altitude of 8,000 feet, the ruins of this Inca fortress are to-day perhaps the most remarkable remains of an ancient civilization in South America.



regions discussed cultures developed with their own peculiar characteristics. Sometimes they achieved almost perfection, as in the case of the Eskimo. In the polar region the Eskimo, handicapped by the environment and the lack of raw material, nevertheless developed a mode of living superbly fitted to it. In the tropical lowlands where there is no stone, the people turned to bone and wood for material with which to make tools and implements. It is obvious that they could not build stone palaces. On the other hand many tribes lagged far behind and never developed an economic culture beyond that of their primitive ancestors, who first invaded the New World. Among these the inhabitants of Tierra del Fuego have received the most attention.

Had iron smelting been invented, the principle of the wheel understood, or had there been animals which could have been domesticated, then civilizations would have undoubtedly been greatly accelerated

in their progress. These inventions had been made in the Old World several thousands of years before the American aborigines began to emerge from the state of pure savagery, and were largely responsible for the higher cultures of Europe and Asia.

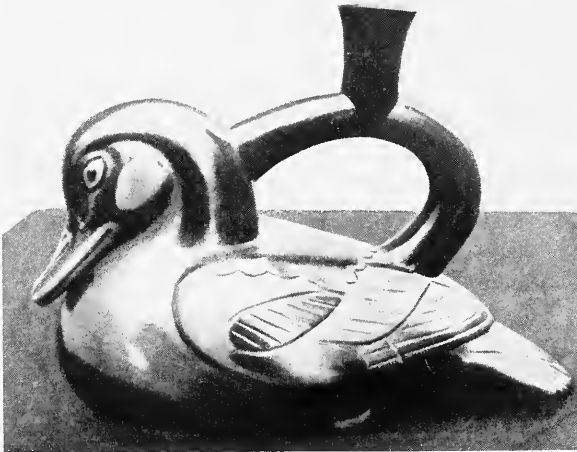
Such is the general story of civilization in America. The inhabitants of the New World were greatly handicapped in not being able



Courtesy of Emerson F. Greenman.

TWO ANIMAL FIGURES
BY AMERICAN IN-
DIANS.

Upper: A platform pipe representing a raccoon, found in a mound in southern Ohio.
Lower: A duck vase made by a Chimu potter in Peru.



Courtesy of "Art and Archaeology." Larco Herrera collection.

to communicate easily with the rest of mankind. Following the initial immigrations, they lived in a world apart from the rest until the coming of the Europeans. Their history is but sketchily known, but more intensive archaeological excavations will undoubtedly increase our knowledge. They have left us a rich cultural heritage, especially in the field of art, and it remains to be seen to what extent our modern civilization can profit by it.

SOME EXPLORERS OF AMERICAN RIVERS

"There are born, oh curious reader, in affairs of great moment, two brothers, namely, Novelty and Unbelief, who appear to be the twins of one birth: and while admiration is excited by what is new, at the same time credit is endangered."—FRAY CRISTÓBAL DE ACUÑA, in the introduction to the account of his journey down the Amazon in 1639.

In the early history of American discovery and exploration, it was not always the discoverer of a hitherto uncharted part of the New World who was also its explorer. Columbus, for example, explored the Gulf of Paria on his third voyage, in 1498, and, although he noted the freshness of the water and touched the northern sections of the delta of the Orinoco, he did not investigate farther. Alonso de Ojeda, who left Spain the following year as soon as he heard of the results of Columbus's third voyage, sighted the coast of South America near the Equator and proceeded northward, passing the mouths of the Essequibo and Orinoco without exploring them. It is interesting to note that Amerigo Vespucci made his first voyage to America with Ojeda's expedition. It was not until 1531 that Diego de Ordaz carried out the first explorations of the Orinoco.

The Amazon was discovered in 1500 by Vicente Yáñez Pinzón, who explored it for about 50 miles and named it Río de Santa María de la Mar Dulce (St. Mary's River of the Fresh Water Sea), although in 1515 his companions referred to it as the Río Marañón. But Orellana, who started in the Ecuadorean Andes, was in charge of the expedition which first traveled its full length.

It was in October 1515 that Juan de Solís started out on the voyage of discovery that was to end so disastrously for him. When the Río de la Plata was entered less than 10 years later by Sebastian Cabot, it was known as Río de Solís, in honor of its discoverer. Cabot explored the Uruguay and the Paraná Rivers, and from the silver objects owned by the natives along the shores of the Río de la Plata it won its present name.

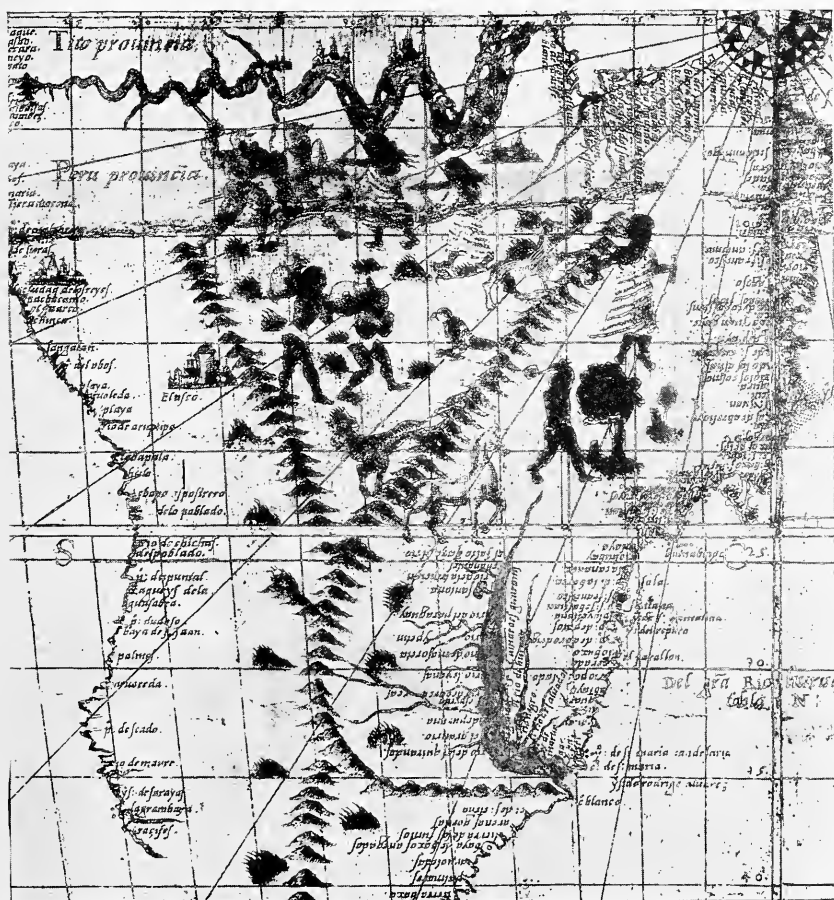
The discovery of the Mississippi is generally ascribed to Hernando de Soto, who reached its shores in 1541. The account of his burial in its broad depths the next year is one of the most familiar tales of that period. But Alonso Álvarez de Pineda first saw the mouth of the mighty river in the expedition sent out under his command in 1519 by Garay, the Governor of Jamaica; sailing east from the Pánuco River in Mexico, he tells of passing a river which he called Río del Espíritu Santo. It was not until the end of the next century, however, that the Mississippi River was fully explored by La Salle, who emerged on the Gulf of Mexico on April 9, 1682.

The Hudson River was seen nearly a hundred years before the *Half Moon* sailed under its palisades. Giovanni da Verrazano, an Italian in charge of the first French expedition to the New World, sailed up the eastern coast of what is now the United States in 1524, and his description of a pleasant harbor fringed by steep hills, where a great stream debouched into the sea, answers well to that of New York. Unfortunately, the expedition was frightened away by bad weather before the leaders could finish exploring the harbor.—EDITOR.]

JUAN DÍAZ DE SOLÍS AND THE RÍO DE LA PLATA¹

At this same time also John Diaz de Solis, reputed the ablest Navigator in the World, was appointed by the King to command two Ships, fitted out to discover a Passage to the Spice Islands. He sailed from Lepe on the 8th of October this same Year 1515, proceeded to Tenerife, one of the Canaries, and thence steered his Course for Cape Frio, lying in twenty-two Degrees and half of North Latitude; saw the Coast of St. Roque in six degrees of North Latitude, steering South and by West, and the Pilots said they were ninety Leagues to the Windward of Cape St. Augustin, but the Currents running West, were so strong, that they drove them two Degrees to the Leeward of that Cape, which lies in eight Degrees and a quarter of South Latitude, according to the reckoning kept this Voyage. From Cape Frio to Cape St. Augustin, they reckoned thirteen Degrees and three Quarters, though Cape Frio was so low that they saw it not, and only made their Computation by the Latitude. They arrived at Rio de Janeiro on the Coast of Brasil, and found it lay in twenty three Degrees, thirty Minutes of South Latitude. From this River to Cape Navidad, the Coast bears North East and South West, being all low Land, jutting out into the Sea. Next they came to the River de los Inocentes, in twenty three Degrees, fifteen Minutes and then to Cape Cananea in twenty five Degrees bare, whence they stood for the Island they called de la Plata, or of Plate, steering South West, and came to an Anchor in twenty seven Degrees of South Latitude, which John Diaz de Solis called Bahia de los Perdidos. Having passed Cape Corrientes, they anchored again in twenty nine Degrees, and passed by in sight of the Island of St. Sebastian of Cadiz, where are three other Islands, which they called de los Lobos, and within them the Port of Nuestra Señora de la Candelaria, in thirty five Degrees Latitude, where they took Possession for the Crown of Spain; but they anchored at Port de los

¹ From "The General History of the Vast Continent and Islands of America commonly called the West-Indies", by Antonio de Herrera. Translated into English by Capt. John Stevens. Second edition, Vol. II, London, 1740; spelling somewhat modernized.



FIRST MAP OF THE RIO DE LA PLATA REGION.

This is a portion of a map in "Frontières entre le Brésil et la Guayane Française", Vol. VI, Part i, by Baron de Rio Branco, published in Paris, 1900. It is interesting to note that this map, made by Sebastian Cabot in 1544, was adduced in evidence in a boundary dispute centuries later. (See page 168.)

Patos, in twenty four Degrees, twenty Minutes. Next they entered a Water, which by reason of its being so spacious, and not salt, they called Mar Dulce, or the fresh Sea, and afterwards was found to be the River now called de la Plata, or of Plate, but was then named the River of Solis. That Commander proceeded farther on in one of his Vessels, being a Caravel, carrying Shoulder of Mutton Sails, observing the entrance along the one side of the River, and came to an Anchor in the most rapid Part of it, near a midling sized Island, in twenty four Degrees, forty Minutes Latitude. All the way they coasted, till they came to the aforesaid Latitude, they often descried Mountains, and other high Cliffs, seeing the People on the Shore, and on this of the River of Plate they discerned many Indian

Houses, and People that very attentively observed the Ship passing by, offering what they had by Signs, and laying it on the Ground. John Diaz de Solis would needs see what sort of People they were, and take some one Man to carry into Spain. Accordingly he went ashore, with as many as the long Boat could carry. The Indians who had laid an Ambush of many Archers, when they had drawn the Spaniards at some distance from the Sea, fell upon, and inclosing them, slew every Man, without regarding the great Guns of the Caravel. Then taking up the Slain, and carrying them from the Shore, so far that those aboard might still see what was done, they cut off their Heads, Arms and Legs, and roasting the Bodies whole, devoured them. Having seen this horrid Spectacle, the Caravel returned to the other Ship, and both together to Cape St. Augustin, where they loaded Brasil wood, and made the best of their way back into Spain. This was the unhappy end of John Diaz de Solis, an abler Pilot than Commander.

THE VOYAGE OF ORELLANA DOWN THE AMAZON²

In the year 1539 the Marquis Don Francisco Pizarro, being in the city of Cuzco, received tidings that beyond the city of Quito, and beyond the limits of the empire formerly ruled by the Incas, there was a wide region where cinnamon grew; and he determined to send his brother, Gonzalo Pizarro, that he might conquer such another land as the Marquis himself had found, and become governor of it.

Having consulted with those in whom he could confide, the marquis therefore handed over the government of Quito to his brother, in order that the people of that city might supply him with all things that he might require, for from thence he would have to make his entrance into the land of Cinnamon, which is east of the city of Quito.

Gonzalo then made all the necessary preparations for the expedition, and added one hundred soldiers to his force, making a total of three hundred and forty; one hundred and fifty cavalry, and the rest infantry. He also took with him more than four thousand Indians, laden with arms, supplies, and all things requisite for the service, such as iron, hatchets, knives, ropes, hempen cords, and large nails; likewise nearly four thousand head of swine, and a flock of llamas, the latter carrying part of the baggage.

In this province of Quijos, which is north of Quito, many warlike Indians sallied forth against Gonzalo; but when they beheld the multitude of Spaniards and horses, they quickly retired and were seen no more. A few days afterwards there was such an earthquake, that

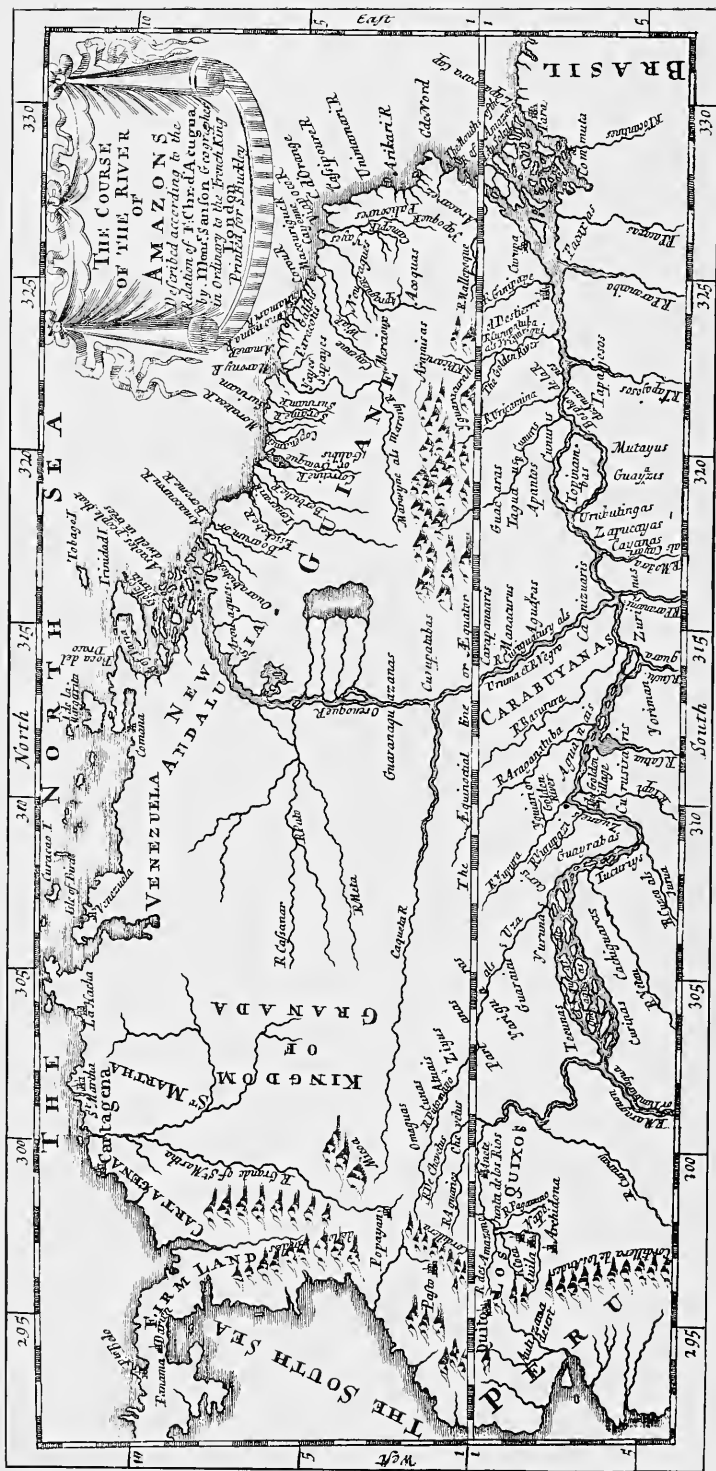
² Extracts from "The Expedition of Gonzalo Pizarro", by Garcilasso Inca de la Vega, and "The Voyage of Francisco de Orellana", by Antonio de Herrera, both in "Expeditions into the Valley of the Amazons", translated and edited by Clements R. Markham, The Hakluyt Society, vol. 24, 1859.

many houses in the village where Gonzalo's party were resting, were thrown down. The earth opened in many places; there was lightning and thunder, insomuch that the Spaniards were much astonished: at the same time such torrents of rain fell, that they were surprised at the difference between that land and Peru. After suffering these inconveniences for forty or fifty days, they commenced the passage of the snowy cordillera, where the snow fell in such quantities, and it was so cold, that many Indians were frozen to death, because they were so lightly clad. The Spaniards, to escape from the cold and snow of that inclement region, left the swine and provisions behind them, intending to seek some Indian village. But things turned out contrary to their hopes, for, having passed the cordillera, they were much in want of provisions, as the land they came to was uninhabited. They made haste to pass through it, and arrived at a province and village called Sumaco, on the skirts of a volcano, where they obtained food.

In Sumaco, Gonzalo Pizarro left behind the greater part of his men; and taking with him the most active, he went in search of a road, if any could be found, to pass onwards; because all the country they had as yet traversed, which was nearly one hundred leagues, was dense forest, where in many parts they had to open a road by main force, and with the blows of hatchets. The Indians, whom they took as guides, deceived them, and led them through uninhabited wilds, where they suffered from hunger, and were obliged to feed on herbs, roots, and wild fruit.

Owing to hunger, and fatigue, and the heavy rains, many Spaniards and Indians fell sick and died; but, in spite of these disasters, they advanced many leagues, and arrived at another land, where they found Indians, a little more civilized than those they had seen before; who fed on maize bread, and dressed in cotton clothes. Gonzalo Pizarro then sent people in all directions, to see if they could find any open road, but all returned in a short time with the same story, that the land was covered with dense forest, full of lagoons and swamps, which could not be forded. On this account they determined to build a brigantine, in which they might pass from one side of the river to the other, the river being nearly two leagues broad. They accordingly set up a forge for making nails, and burnt charcoal with great trouble, because the heavy rains prevented the tinder from taking fire. They also made roofed huts to burn the wood in, and defend it from the rain. Some of the nails were made from the shoes of the horses, which had been killed as food for the sick, and the rest of the iron they had brought with them. They now found it more valuable than gold.

They put all their gold on board the brigantine, amounting to more than one hundred thousand dollars, with many fine emeralds, also the iron, the forge, and everything else of value. They also sent the sick on



THE COURSE OF THE AMAZON RIVER.

This map was taken from "Voyages and Discoveries in South America", published in London in 1698. It is based on Father Acuña's description of his descent of the river in 1639, in company with Pedro Texeira, who had made the trip up the Amazon from Belém to the Aguariço, near Quito.

board, who were unable to travel by land. Thus they started from this place, having journeyed already nearly two hundred leagues; and began the descent of the river, some by land, others on board the brigantine, never being far from each other, and every night they slept close together. They all advanced with much difficulty; for those on shore had to open the road in many places, by cutting with axes; while those on board had to labour hard to resist the current, so as not to get far from their comrades. Having gone on in this way for more than two months, they met some Indians who told them by signs, and by means of some words understood by their own Indians, that ten days journey from the place where they then were, they would find an inhabited land; well supplied with provisions, and rich in gold, and in all other things which they wanted. They also told them, by signs, that that land was on the banks of another great river which joined the one down which they were now travelling. The Spaniards rejoiced at the news. Gonzalo Pizarro selected, as captain of the brigantine, his lieutenant, Don Francisco de Orellana, with fifty soldiers; and ordered him to proceed to the place indicated by the Indians (which would be distant about eighty leagues); and, having arrived at the point where the two rivers meet, to load the brigantine with provisions, and return up the river, to relieve the people, who were so afflicted with hunger, that each day there died several men, Spaniards as well as Indians. Of four thousand who started in this expedition, two thousand were already dead.

Voyaging, as they say, with the design of returning to Gonzalo Pizarro, with provisions, they found themselves, after going over two hundred leagues, unable to return, and, therefore, continued to sail on until they came out into the ocean.

Their difficulties were now so great, that they had nothing to eat but the skins which formed their girdles, and the leather of their shoes, boiled with a few herbs.

On the 8th of January, 1541, when they were all expecting their deaths, Orellana heard the drums of Indians, at which they rejoiced, as it now seemed that they would not die of hunger. After going on for two leagues, they came upon four canoes of Indians, who presently retired, and Orellana came to a village, with a great number of Indians ready to defend it. The captain ordered all his people to land in good order, and to take care not to straggle. At the sight of the village these afflicted soldiers plucked up such courage that, attacking the Indians with valour, the latter fled, leaving their provisions behind them, with which the Spaniards satisfied their excessive hunger. Two hours after noon the Indians returned in their canoes, to see what was going on. The captain spoke to them in the Indian language,³ and, although they did not understand all he said to them, yet when he gave

³ Orellana is said to have been very apt at learning Indian languages.

them a few Spanish trifles, they remained content, and offered to give him all he required. He only asked them for food, and they at once brought abundance of turkeys, partridges, fish, and other things. On the following day thirteen chiefs arrived, with plumes of feathers, and gold ornaments. Orellana spoke to them with great courtesy, requested them to be obedient to the crown of Castile, and took possession of the country in the king's name.

As he knew the good feeling of the Indians, and his people being rested; knowing also the danger of sailing in the barque and canoes, if they reached the sea; he proposed to build another brigantine. One of the chiefs, according to the account of friar Gaspar de Carbajal, gave information respecting the Amazons, and of a rich and powerful chief in the interior. Having commenced building the brigantine, they found no difficulty except in getting nails, but it pleased God that two men should make that which they had never been taught to make, whilst another took charge of burning the charcoal. They made bellows of their leathern buskins, and worked hard at everything else; some carrying, some cutting, and others doing various things, the captain himself being the first to put his hand to the work. They manufactured more than two thousand nails in twenty days, a delay which was prejudicial, because the provisions were consumed which had previously been collected.

Orellana then went to a village, at another part of the river, where he met with no resistance. The natives gave him provisions; and, continuing the voyage in sight of villages, on another day some Indians in four canoes came to the vessel, and offered the captain some turtles, good partridges, and fish; they were much pleased, and invited Orellana to come and see their chief, who was named Aparia, and who now approached with more canoes. The Indians and Christians landed, and the chief Aparia came, and was well received by captain Orellana, who treated him to a discourse on the law of God, and the grandeur of the King of Castile; all which the Indians listened to with much attention.

The new brigantine being completed, and fit to navigate the sea, they set sail on the fourth of April from the residence of Aparia, and voyaged for eighty leagues without encountering a single warlike Indian. The river passed through an uninhabited country, flowing from forest to forest, and they found no place where they could either sleep or fish. Thus with herbs and a little toasted maize for food, they went on until the 6th of May, when they reached an elevated place which appeared to have been inhabited.

On the twelfth of May they arrived at the province of Machiparo, which is thickly peopled, and ruled by another chief named Aomagua. One morning they discovered a number of canoes, full of warlike Indians, with large shields made of the skins of lizards and dantas,

beating drums, and shouting, with threats that they would eat the Christians. The latter collected their vessels together, but met with a great misfortune in finding that their powder had become damp and that they were thus unable to load their arquebusses.

Understanding that there was a quantity of provisions in the village, the captain ordered a soldier, named Cristoval de Segovia, to take it. He started with twelve companions, who loaded themselves with supplies, but were attacked by more than two thousand Indians, whom they resisted with such vigour, that they forced them to retreat, and retained the food, with only two Spaniards wounded. But the Indians returned with reinforcements, and pressing on the Spaniards, wounded four. In the meanwhile another body of Indians attacked the vessels from two sides, and, having fought for more than two hours, it pleased the Lord to assist the Spaniards, and some, of whom little was expected, performed wonderful deeds of valour.

As it appeared to Orellana that it was useless, and could serve no purpose to fight with the Indians, he determined to continue his voyage. He embarked a great part of the provisions, and got under weigh; while the Indians on shore, amounting to nearly ten thousand, gave loud shouts, and those in canoes continued to assault the Spaniards with much audacity. In this way the whole night was passed until dawn, when they saw many villages. The Spaniards, fatigued by so bad a night, determined to go and take refreshments on an uninhabited island; on which, however, they were unable to get any rest, from the crowds of Indians who landed and attacked them.

On this the captain determined to proceed. He was continually followed by one hundred and thirty canoes containing eight thousand Indians, and accompanied by four or five sorcerers, while the noise of their drums, cornets, and shouting was a thing frightful to hear. If the Spaniards had not had arquebusses and cross-bows, they must have been destroyed, for the Indians advanced with the determination of grappling with and boarding the vessels. Orellana sent forward an arquebusier named Cales, who shot the Indian general, and the other Indians crowded round to assist him. The ships then set down the river, followed by the canoes, without resting for two days and nights, and in this way they departed from the settlements of the great chief who was named Machiparo.

On another day they discovered a small village in a very beautiful spot, and, though the Indians resisted, they entered it and found plenty of provisions. There was a country house containing very good jars of earthenware, vases, and goblets of glass enamelled with many bright colors, resembling drawings and paintings. The Indians at this place said that these things came from the interior, together with much gold and silver. They also found idols worked from palm wood in a very curious fashion, of gigantic stature, with wheels in the

fleshy part of the arms. The Spaniards found in this village gold and silver; but as they only thought of discovery and of saving their lives, they did not care for anything else.

On the twenty-second of June, they discovered many villages on the left bank, but they could not get at them on account of the strength of the current. The following Wednesday they came to a village, with a large square through the midst of which flowed a stream. Here they obtained supplies, and they continually passed the habitations of fishermen. In doubling a point of the river, they came upon some very large villages. The Indians were prepared for the Spaniards, and came out to attack them on the water. Orellana called to them,



BEAUTIFULLY SHAPED POTTERY VASE EXCAVATED AT SANTAREM, BRAZIL.

and offered them articles for barter; but they mocked at him, and a great multitude of people advanced against him in different troops. The captain ordered the ships to retire to the place where his people were searching for food; but the flights of arrows which the Indians discharged were such that, having wounded five persons, and among others the Father Fray Gaspar de Carbajal, Orellana made great haste to bring the vessel to, and land his people; where the Indians fought bravely and obstinately, without taking account of the number of killed and wounded. Father Carbajal affirms that these Indians defended themselves so resolutely, because they were tributaries of the Amazons, and that he and the other Spaniards saw ten or twelve

Amazons, who were fighting in front of the Indians, as if they commanded them, with such vigour that the Indians did not dare to turn their backs; and those who fled before the Spaniards were killed with sticks.

These women appeared to be very tall, robust, fair, with long hair twisted over their heads, skins round their loins, and bows and arrows in their hands, with which they killed seven or eight Spaniards. This account of the Amazons I repeat as I found it in the memorials of this expedition, leaving the credibility of it to the judgment of others; for the name of Amazons is that which these Spaniards chose to give them.

As reinforcements were coming up from other villages, the Spaniards embarked and retired; calculating that up to that day they had gone over one thousand four hundred leagues, without knowing how far it might be to the sea. Here they captured an Indian trumpeter, aged thirty years, who told them many things respecting the interior; but some of the Spaniards were of the opinion that Captain Orellana should not have given the name of Amazons to these women who fought, because in the Indies it was no new thing for the women to fight, and to use bows and arrows; as has been seen on some islands of Barlovento, and at Carthagera, where they displayed as much courage as the men.

Having reached the center of the river, at a short distance they discovered a large village, and, yielding to the importunities of the soldiers, the captain went to it to get provisions, though he said that if Indians were not to be seen, it was because they were concealed, which proved to be true.

The multitude of people, and the number of villages, which were not half a league distant from each other, as well on the south side of the river, as in the interior, showed Captain Orellana the dangers which he must encounter, and induced him to keep his people well together, and advance cautiously. Here they took particular care to notice the qualities of the country, which appeared genial and fertile. The forest consisted of ever-green oaks, and cork trees, and contained plenty of game of all kinds. Orellana named this country "the Province of St. John," extending more than one hundred and fifty leagues. From the time that they entered it, they sailed in the middle of the river, until they came to a number of islands which they believed to be uninhabited; but the natives, on seeing the vessels, came out in two hundred piraguas, each one containing thirty or forty persons, decked out in warlike dresses, with many drums, trumpets, an instrument played with the mouth, and another with three strings. They attacked the brigantine with loud shouts; but the arquebusses and cross-bows stopped their onslaught; and on shore there were a vast number of people with the same instruments

The islands appeared high, fertile, and very beautiful, the largest being fifty leagues long. The brigantines went on, always followed by the piraguas, and they were unable to get any provisions.

Having left this province of St. John, and the piraguas having desisted from following them, they determined to rest in a forest. Having rested themselves in this wood, they continued their voyage. Finding a small village, the Spaniards landed to obtain provisions. The Indians, in defending it, killed Antonio de Carrançá, a native of Burgos; and here they found that the Indians used poisoned arrows. At this place also the Spaniards first noticed signs of the ebb of the tide. The captain, continuing the voyage, desired to rest his men, and halted in a forest. Here they surrounded the brigantines with bulwarks, as a protection from poisoned arrows.

On account of the many villages on the right hand, they kept on the left side of the river, which had none, though they could see that the interior was well peopled. After resting for three days on the banks, the captain sent some soldiers to go at least a league inland, and reconnoitre. They soon returned, saying that the land was good and fertile, and that they had seen many people who seemed to be going to hunt. From this place the land was low, and there were many inhabited islands, to which they went to obtain food. Never more were they able to return to the main land on either side, till they reached the sea; and it appeared that they sailed amongst these islands for about two hundred leagues, to which distance the tide rose with much force. Continuing their voyage, with great scarcity of food, they saw a village, and the larger brigantine came to in front of it; the other struck on a snag, and, breaking a plank, it filled.

They landed to get supplies, and so great a multitude of Indians attacked them, that the Christians were obliged to retreat to their vessels; of which one had sunk, and the other was left high and dry by the tide. In this great danger and difficulty, Captain Orellana ordered that half his company should fight, and that the other half should get the large vessel afloat, and stop up the hole in the smaller one. It pleased God that this was done with great diligence; and, at the end of three hours labour, the Indians left off fighting, and all the Spaniards embarked with some food, and slept on board in mid channel.

Another time they came to, near a forest, to repair the vessels, which delayed them eighteen days, as it was necessary to make nails. They suffered much from hunger, but God succoured them with a tapir, as big as a mule, that came to the river, and on it they fed four or five days.

Having arrived near the sea, they made their rigging and ropes of grass, and their sails of the blankets in which they slept. Here

they remained fourteen days, eating nothing but the shell fish that each man could pick up, and thus ill provided they started on the eighth of August 1541. They went under sail, taking advantage of the tide which often when it turned, carried the vessels back; but it pleased God to deliver them from these perils, because as they went by lands which were inhabited, the Indians gave them maize and roots, and treated them well. They got water on board in pitchers and jars, toasted maize and roots; and thus they got ready for sea, to go where fortune might choose to take them, without either pilot, compass, or anything useful for navigation; nor did they know what direction they should take.



GOLD SEEKERS.

It was the quest for the precious metal that led the early adventurers into the unexplored interior of South America.

The two fathers of the expedition declare that in this voyage they found all the people to be both intelligent and ingenious, which was shown by the works which they performed in sculpture, and painting in bright colours.

They left the mouth of the river, between two islands four leagues apart, judging that the mouth of the river extended fifty leagues, and that the fresh water extended into the sea for more than twenty leagues.⁴ They sailed out on the twenty-sixth of August 1541; the small barque, having separated from the large one in the night, was never seen again during the passage. They reached the island of Cubagua on the eleventh of September, two days after the smaller brigantine had arrived.

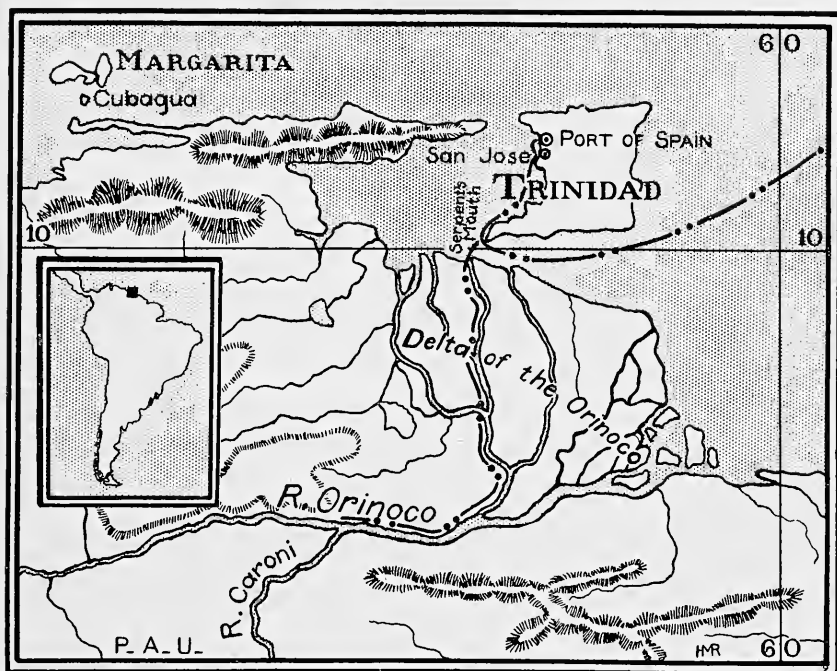
⁴ As a matter of fact, the fresh water extends into the sea about 150 miles.

RALEIGH'S EXPLORATION OF THE ORINOCO IN 1595 ¹

I sent with John Douglas an old cassique of Trinedado for a pilot, who told us that we could not return again by the bay or gulf, but that he knew a by-branch which ran within the land to the eastward, and that he thought by it we might fall into Capuri, and so return in four days: John Douglas searched those rivers, and found four goodly entrances, whereof the least was as big as the Thames at Woolwich; but in the bay thitherward it was shoal, and but six foot water; so as we were now without hope of ship or bark to pass over, and therefore resolved to go on with the boats, and the bottom of the gallego, in which we thrust sixty men; in the Lion's Whelp's boat and wherry we carried twenty; Captain Calfield in his wherry carried ten more; and in my barge other ten; which made up a hundred. We had no other means but to carry victuals for a month in the same, and also to lodge therein as we could, and to boil and dress our meat. We had with us for pilot an Indian of Barema, a river to the south of Oroonoko, between that and Amazonas, whose canoes we had formerly taken as he was going from the said Barema, laden with Cassavi bread to sell at Marguerita: this Arwacan promised to bring me into the great river of Oroonoko; but indeed of that which we entered he was utterly ignorant, for he had not seen it in twelve years before, at which time he was very young, and of no judgment; and if God had not sent us another help, we might have wandered a whole year in that labyrinth of river, ere we had found any way either out or in, especially after we were past the ebbing and flowing, which was in four days: for I know all the earth doth not yield the like confluence of streams and branches, and one crossing the other so many times, and also fair and large, and so like one to another, as no man can tell which to take: and if we went by the sun or compass, hoping thereby to go directly one way or other, yet that way we were also carried in a circle amongst multitudes of islands, and every island so bordered with high trees, as no man could see any further than the breadth of the river, or length of the breach.

As we abode there a while, our Indian pilot, called Ferdinando, would needs go ashore to their village, to fetch some fruits, and to drink of their artificial wines, and also to see the place, and to know the lord of it against another time, and took with him a brother of his, which he had with him in the journey. When they came to the village of these people, the lord of the island offered to lay hands on them, purposing to have slain them both; yielding for reason, that this Indian of ours had brought a strange nation into their territory, to

¹ Extracts from "The Omnibus Book of Travellers' Tales", which reprinted it in condensed form from the Oxford edition of Raleigh's works, 1829.



RALEIGH'S ROUTE UP THE ORINOCO IN 1595.

Leaving Plymouth on February 9, 1595, Raleigh returned to England 6 months later with many fantastic tales of his voyage.

spoil and destroy them; but the pilot being quick, and of a disposed body, slipped their fingers, and ran into the woods; and his brother, being the better footman of the two, recovered the creek's mouth, where we stayed in our barge, crying out that his brother was slain. With that we set hands on one of them that was next us, a very old man, and brought him into the barge, assuring him that if we had not our pilot again we would presently cut off his head. This old man, being that he should pay the loss of the other, cried out to those in the woods to save Ferdinando our pilot; but they followed him notwithstanding, and hunted after him upon the foot with their deer dogs,² and with so main a cry, that all the woods echoed with the shout they made; but at last this poor chased Indian recovered the river side, and got upon a tree, and as we were coasting, leaped down, and swam to the barge half dead with fear; but our good hap was, that we kept the other old Indian, which we handfasted, to redeem our pilot withal; for being natural of those rivers, we assured ourselves he knew the way better than any stranger could; and indeed but for this chance I think we had never found the way either to Guiana or back to our ships.

² See illustration, p. 170.

The great river of Oroonoko, or Baraquan, hath nine branches, which fall out on the north side of his own main mouth; on the south side it hath seven other fallings into the sea; so it disembogueth by sixteen arms in all, between islands and broken ground; but the islands are very great, many of them as big as the Isle of Wight and bigger, and many less. From the first branch on the north to the last of the south it is at least 100 leagues, so as the river's mouth is no less than 300 miles wide at his entrance into the sea, which I take to be far bigger than that of Amazonas: all those that inhabit in the mouth of this river upon the several north branches are these Tivitivas, of which there are two chief lords, which have continual wars one with the other. The islands which lie on the right hand are called Pallamos, and the land on the left Hororotomaka; and the river, by which John Douglas returned within the land from Amana to Capuri, they call Macuri.

These Tivitivas are a very goodly people, and very valiant, and have the most manly speech and most deliberate that ever I heard of what nation soever. In the summer they have houses on the ground, as in other places; in the winter they dwell upon the trees; where they build very artificial towns and villages, as it is written in the Spanish story of the West Indies, that those people do in the lowlands near the gulf of Uraba: for between May and September the river of Oroonoko riseth thirty foot upright, and then are those islands overflown twenty foot high above the level of the ground, saving some few raised grounds in the middle of them; and for this cause they are enforced to live in this manner.

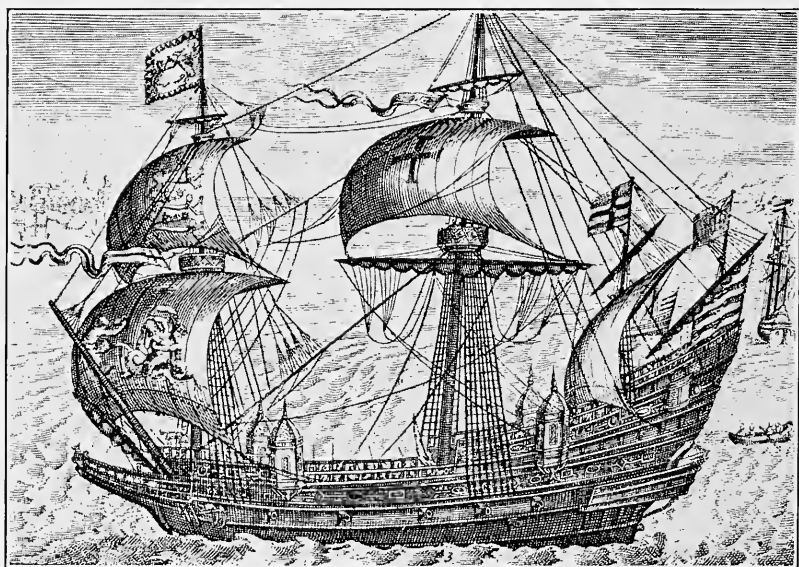
Of these people, those that dwell upon the branches of the Oroonoko, called Capuri and Macureo, are for the most part carpenters of canoes; for they make the most and fairest houses, and sell them into Guiana for gold, and into Trinedado for tobacco, in the excessive taking whereof they exceed all nations; and notwithstanding the moistness of the air in which they live, the hardness of their diet, and the great labours they suffer, to hunt, fish, and fowl for their living, in all my life, either in the Indies or in Europe, did I never behold a more goodly or better favoured people, or a more manly. They were wont to make war upon all nations, and especially on the cannibals, so as none durst without a good strength trade by those rivers; but of late they are at peace with their neighbours, all holding the Spaniards for a common enemy.

After we departed from the port of these Ciawani we passed up the river with the flood, and anchored the ebb; and in this sort we went onward. The third day that we entered the river our galley came on ground, and stuck so fast, as we thought that even there our discovery had ended, and that we must have left sixty of our men to have inhabited, like rooks upon trees, with those nations: but the

next morning, after we had cast out all her ballast, with tugging and hauling to and fro, we got her afloat, and went on: at four days' end we fell into as goodly a river as ever I beheld, which was called the great Amana, which ran more directly without windings and turnings than the other: but soon after, the flood of the sea left us, and we enforced either by main strength to row against a violent current, or to return as wise as we went out. We had then no shift but to persuade the companies that it was but two or three days' work, and therefore desired them to take pains, every gentleman and others taking their turns to row, and to spell one the other at the hour's end. Every day we passed by goodly branches of rivers, some falling from the west, others from the east, into Amana; but those I leave to the description in the chart of discovery, where every one shall be named with his rising and descent. When three days more were overgone, our companies began to despair, the weather being extreme hot, the river bordered with very high trees that kept away the air, and the current against us every day stronger than other: but we evermore commanded our pilots to promise an end the next day, and used it so long as we were driven to assure them from four reaches of the river to three, and so to two, and so to the next reach; but so long we laboured as many days were spent, and so driven to draw ourselves to harder allowance, our bread even at the last, and no drink at all; and our men and ourselves so wearied and scorched, and doubtful withal whether we should ever perform it or no, the heat increasing as we drew towards the line; for we were now in five degrees.

The further we went on (our victual decreasing, and the air breeding great faintness), we grew weaker and weaker, when we had most need of strength and ability; for hourly the river ran more violently than other against us, and the barge, wherries, and ship's boat of captain Gifford and captain Calfield had spent all their provisions, so as we were brought into despair and discomfort, had we not persuaded all the company that it was but only one day's work more to attain the land, where we should be relieved of all we wanted; and if we returned, that we were sure to starve by the way, and that the world would also laugh us to scorn. On the banks of these rivers were divers sorts of fruits good to eat, flowers and trees of that variety as were sufficient to make ten volumes of herbals. We relieved ourselves many times with the fruits of the country, and sometimes with fowl and fish; we saw birds of all colours, some carnation, some crimson, orange and tawny, purple, green, watched, and of all other sorts, both simple and mixed; as it was unto us a great good passing of the time to behold them, besides the relief we found by killing some store of them with our fowling pieces, without which, having little or no bread, and less drink, but only the thick and troubled water of the river, we had been in a very hard case.

The next day, after we had rowed up and down some fourscore miles, we returned, and went on our way up the great river, and, when we were even at the last cast for want of victuals, captain Gifford being before the galley and the rest of the boats, seeking out some place to land upon the banks to make fire, espied four canoes coming down the river: those canoes that were taken were loaden with bread, and were bound for Marguerita in the West Indies, which those Indians, called Arwacas, purposed to carry thither for exchange: but in the lesser there were three Spaniards, who having heard of the defeat of their governor in Trinedado, and that we purposed to enter Guiana, came away in those canoes: one of them was a cavallero, as



AN ELIZABETHAN GALLEON.

The intrepid explorers of the sixteenth century set out on their adventures in vessels of this type.

the captain of the Arwacas after told us, another a soldier, and the third a refiner.

In the meantime nothing on the earth could have been more welcome to us, next unto gold, than the great store of very excellent bread which we found in these canoes; for now our men cried, Let us go on, we care not how far. After that captain Gifford had brought the two canoes to the galley, I took my barge, and went to the bank's side with a dozen shot, where the canoes first ran themselves ashore, and landed there, sending out captain Gifford and captain Thyn on one hand, and captain Calfield on the other, to follow those that were fled into the woods; and as I was creeping through the bushes I saw an Indian basket hidden, which was the refiner's basket; for I found

in it his quicksilver, saltpetre, and divers things for the trial of metals, and also the dust of such ore as he had refined; but in those canoes which escaped there was a good quantity of ore and gold. I then landed more men, and offered five hundred pounds to what soldier soever could take one of those three Spaniards that we thought were landed: but our labours were in vain in that behalf; for they put themselves into one of the small canoes, and so, while the greater canoes were in taking, they escaped: but seeking after the Spaniards we found the Arwacas hidden in the woods, which were pilots for the Spaniards, and rowed their canoes: of which I kept the chiefest for a pilot, and carried him with me to Guiana, by whom I understood where and in what countries the Spaniards had laboured for gold, though I made not the same known to all: for when the springs began to break, and the rivers to raise themselves so suddenly, as by no means we could abide the digging of any mine; especially for that the richest are defended with rocks of hard stone, which we call the *white spar*, and that it required both time, men, and instruments fit for such a work; I thought it best not to hover thereabouts, lest, if the same had been perceived by the company, there would have been by this time many barks and ships set out, and perchance other nations would also have gotten of ours for pilots, so as both ourselves might have been prevented, and all our care taken for good usage of the people been utterly lost by those that only respect present profit; and such violence or insolence offered, as the nations which are borderers would have changed their desire of our love and defence into hatred and violence. And for any longer stay to have brought a more quantity (which I hear hath been often objected,) whosoever had seen or proved the fury of that river after it began to rise, and had been a month and odd days, as we were, from hearing aught from our ships, leaving them meanly manned above four hundred miles off, would perchance have turned somewhat sooner than we did, if all the mountains had been gold, or rich stones: and, to say the truth, all the branches and small rivers which fell into Oroonoko were raised with such speed, as, if we waded them over the shoes in the morning outward, we were covered to the shoulders homeward the very same day; and to stay to dig out gold with our nails had been *opus laboris*, but not *ingenii*: such a quantity as would have served our turns we could not have had, but a discovery of the mines to our infinite disadvantage we had made, and that could have been the best profit of further search or stay; for those mines are not easily broken, nor opened in haste; and I could have returned a good quantity of gold ready cast, if I had not shot at another mark than present profit.

That night we came to an anchor at the parting of three goodly rivers (the one was the river of Amana, by which we came from the

north, and ran athwart towards the south, the other two were of Oroonoko, which crossed from the west, and ran to sea towards the east), and landed upon a fair sand, where we found thousands of tortoises' eggs, which are very wholesome meat, and greatly restoring; so as our men were now well filled, and highly contented both with the fare and nearness of the land of Guiana, which appeared in sight. In the morning there came down, according to promise, the lord of that border, called Toparimaca, with some thirty or forty followers, and brought us divers sorts of fruits, and of his wine, bread, fish, and flesh, whom we also feasted as we could, at least he drank good Spanish wine (whereof we had a small quantity in bottles), which above all things they love. When we came to his town, we found two cassiques, whereof one of them was a stranger, that had been up the river in trade, and his boats, people, and wife encamped at the port where we anchored, and other was of that country, a follower of Toparimaca: they lay each of them in a cotton hamaca, which we call Brazil beds.

The seat of this town of Toparimaca was very pleasant, standing on a little hill, in an excellent prospect, with goodly gardens, a mile compass round about it, and two very fair and large ponds of excellent fish adjoining. This town is called Arowocai; the people are of the nation called Nepoios, and are followers of Carapana. In that place I saw very aged people, that we might perceive all their sinews and veins without any flesh, and but even as a case covered with skin. The lord of this place gave me an old man for pilot, who was of great experience and travel, and knew the river most perfectly both by day and night; and it shall be requisite for any man that passeth it to have such a pilot; for it is four, five, and six miles over in many places, and twenty miles in other places, with wonderful eddies and strong currents, many great islands and divers shoals, and many dangerous rocks; and besides, upon any increase of wind, so great a billow, as we were sometimes in great peril of drowning in the galley, for the small boats durst not come from the shore but when it was very fair.

The next day we hasted thence, and having an easterly wind to help us, we spared our arms from rowing; for after we entered Oroonoko, the river lieth for the most part east and west.

The next day we arrived at the port of Morequito, and anchored there, sending away one of our pilots to seek the king of Arromaia, uncle to Morequito, slain by Berreo. The next day following, before noon, he came to us on foot from his house, which was fourteen English miles (himself being 100 years old), and returned on foot the same day, and with him many of the borderers, with many women and children, that came to wonder at our nation, and to bring us down victual, which they did in great plenty, as venison, pork, hens, chickens, fowl, fish, with divers sorts of excellent fruits and roots, and great abundance

of pines³, the princess of fruits that grow under the sun, especially those of Guiana. They brought us also store of bread, and of their wine, and a sort of paraquitos, no bigger than wrens, and of all other sorts both small and great: one of them gave me a beast, called by the Spaniards *armadilla*, which they call *cassacam*, which seemeth to be all barred over with small plates, somewhat like to a rhinoceros, with a white horn growing in his hinder parts, as big as a great hunting horn, which they use to wind instead of a trumpet.

After this old king had rested a while in a little tent that I caused to be set up, I began by my interpreter to discourse with him of the



RALEIGH AND THE KING OF ARROMAIA.

Raleigh relates in his account of the Orinoco River exploration that at the port of Marequito he was visited by an Indian king who came on foot for a distance of 14 miles, in spite of his hundred years. Many of his subjects brought provisions, including venison, pork, fowl, fish, and a great variety of excellent fruits and roots.

death of Morequito his predecessor, and afterward of the Spaniards, and ere I went any further I made him know the cause of my coming thither, whose servant I was, and that the queen's pleasure was I should undertake the voyage for their defence, and to deliver them from the tyranny of the Spaniards, dilating at large (as I had done before to those of Trinedado) on her majesty's greatness, her justice, her charity to all oppressed nations, with as many of the rest of her beauties and virtues as either I could express or they conceive.

The next morning we also left the port, and sailed westward up the river, to view the famous river called Caroli, as well because it

³ Pineapples.

was marvellous of itself, as also for that I understood it led to the strongest nations of all the frontiers that were enemies to the Epuremei, which are subjects to Inga, emperor of Guiana and Manoa; and that night we anchored at another island called Caiama, of some five or six miles in length, and the next day arrived at the mouth of Caroli. When we were short of it as low or further down as the port of Morequito, we heard the great roar and fall of the river, but when we came to enter with our barge and wherries, thinking to have gone up some forty miles to the nations of the Cassipagatos, we were not able with a barge of eight oars to row one stone's cast in an hour; and yet the river is as broad as the Thames at Woolwich.

Upon this river one captain George, that I took with Berreo, told me there was a great silver mine, and that it was near the banks of the said river. But by this time as well Oroonoko, Caroli, as all the rest of the rivers, were risen four or five feet in height, so as it was not possible, by the strength of any men, or with any boat whatsoever, to row into the river against the stream. Myself, with captain Gifford, captain Calfield, Edw. Hancock, and some half a dozen shot, marched over land to view the strange overfalls of the river of Caroli, which roared so far off, and also to see the plains adjoining, and the rest of the province of Canuri: I sent also captain Whiddon, W. Connoke, and some eight shot with them, to see if they could find any mineral stone along the river's side. When we ran to the tops of the first hills of the plains adjoining the river, we beheld that wonderful breach of waters which ran down Caroli: and might from that mountain see the river how it ran in three parts above twenty miles off; and there appeared some ten or twelve overfalls in sight, every one as high over the other as a church tower, which fell with that fury, that the rebound of waters made it seem as if it had been all covered over with a great shower of rain: and in some places we took it at the first for a smoke that had risen over some great town. For mine own part, I was well persuaded from thence to have returned, being a very ill footman; but the rest were all so desirous to go near the said strange thunder of waters, as they drew me on by little and little, till we came into the next valley, where we might better discern the same. I never saw a more beautiful country, nor more lively prospects, hills so raised here and there over the valleys, the river winding into divers branches, the plains adjoining without bush or stubble, all fair green grass, the ground of hard sand, easy to march on either for horse or foot, the deer crossing in every path, the birds towards the evening singing on every tree with a thousand several tunes, cranes and herons of white, crimson, and carnation, perching on the river's side, the air fresh, with a gentle easterly wind; and every stone that we stopped to take up promised either gold or silver by his complexion.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE AMERICAS TO POLITICAL ECONOMY

By POMPONIO GUZMÁN

President, Sociedad de Agricultores de Colombia; formerly Minister of Finance

THE history of the world faithfully recounts man's attempts, from his earliest days, to satisfy his needs. Yet, even while he succeeded in gratifying them, they multiplied and became less crude, both materially and intellectually. This increase has been proportional in number and kind to the various elements which his ingenuity has gone on creating in order to have new methods and new means of production which would lessen toil, increase volume, and reduce cost until products are within reach of the greatest possible number of users. So, to the things which have been considered prime necessities throughout the ages, others are being added daily which, although not essential in earlier times, today are considered indispensable in even moderately civilized nations.

From those complicated circumstances have arisen others and yet others, so closely intertwined or linked to each other as effects or as causes that they form a harmonious whole, whose framework has made evident to thoughtful men that which was an impenetrable mystery to the ancients: the natural relations of human beings and their inevitable bonds of union. Upon these facts depend the universal laws of economics, and those laws are the matter with which the science of economics deals.

After all, the natural laws or principles which govern individual, State, and international economics—although they are immutable and undergo no change with the new conditions arising in every age and locality by the varied circumstances of opinion and time—have different applications, very difficult to determine in each case. Usually different, if not obscure or unknown, factors operate on each occasion. Therefore economics is perhaps the most difficult of all sciences to apply, and because of these intricate problems its good name, value, and usefulness are often discredited, if not repudiated. How hard it is to realize that principles do not change, but if they are applied under different circumstances the results can never be the same!

That is why, in applying political economy, it is so important to examine carefully the different factors which come into play in each problem dealing with this kind of idea. An analysis of the historical progress of economics will show at every stage momentous events

which have succeeded in changing age-old customs and have determined a new economic trend with a character of its own in the ages or periods which, following one another, have marked the course of humanity in this field.

The economics of the Pharaohs, the Syrians, or the Chaldeans could not be the same as that expounded by Socrates, Aristotle, and Xenophon. Hellenic culture was substantially different from that of the Roman Empire. The advent of Christianity revolutionized world economics, and the long mediaeval period determined or gave rise to economic conditions in keeping with the unproductive existence which the European peoples had led after the fall of the Greco-Roman civilization and its replacement by the savagery of the barbarians from the North. The rebirth of arts and sciences which ended the Middle Ages coincided with the discovery of America and the rise of nationalism, cast in the rigid mold of the new European states.

This was how the economic revolution developed from the 16th to the 18th centuries, only to be transformed in the 19th century thanks to the steam engine, the railway, the telegraph, and everything else which put man, things, and ideas from the four corners of the earth into direct, economical, and rapid contact with each other. The great conflagration of 1914, apparently extinguished by the Treaty of Versailles, was an event having most disturbing consequences for world economics; indeed, to change the figure, after 20 years it has not yet been possible to control the unruly and turbulent waters, which have left their old channel and are undermining the economic order established by the evolution and experience of preceding centuries.

The way to distinguish the contribution of the Americas to world economics is to take these historical antecedents as a basis and the century in which the new world was added to the old as the point of departure, and then to realize that the American influence on Europe, as far as economic relations were concerned, was necessarily very slow. This usually is the case with the appearance of all economic phenomena, whose effects become visible long after they have been produced, in contradistinction to that of physical phenomena, whose results are both rapid and predictable. Therefore it often happens that the most careful research is of no avail in discovering the origins of and explaining certain manifestations of an economic character, whose true genesis is concealed in the maze of direct and indirect causes contributing to their development.

It took more than a century after that happy day when Columbus first set foot on American soil for Europe to become conscious of the international effects resulting from the new economic arrangement—Spain's monopoly of the trade with its American colonies, and the wealth derived from the metals and precious stones extracted from

American soil for the exclusive benefit of the fatherland. Many more years had to pass before the European world could understand the great advantage given to England and France by their dominion of North America, to Portugal by its vast possessions in Brazil, and to Holland by its command of various points on the new continent.

In the 16th and 17th centuries the importance of America to world economics was already evident, since men realized how many rich and varied elements of economic importance were available in the western hemisphere. But during these years the agricultural products of the Americas were no great motive for immediate trade, although later the contribution of this continent—represented by such indigenous products as cacao, tobacco, corn, potatoes, quinine, rubber, coca, yuca, and certain native tropical fruits—were an exceedingly valuable addition to markets throughout the world. And the indigenous artifacts offered nothing new except the interest aroused in collectors. The animal and plant life of the American tropics was ignored for centuries until Humboldt and Bonpland were drawn by their interest in science to observe and study, at the same time that the famous botanical expedition was being organized under the direction of the scholar Mutis, who was to carry on his work in the Viceroyalty of New Granada while others visited Mexico and Peru.

Little by little all the European nations became aware of how important the discovery of the New Continent was, especially when its economic implications were realized. But since at that time the land devoted to agriculture by the natives was no more than the amount necessary to satisfy their most pressing needs—unquestionably rather limited, owing to their primitive culture—it was not agriculture, today the greatest source of wealth for the continent, which was of the greatest interest in covetous European eyes. On the contrary, gold, silver, precious stones—the accumulation of uncounted centuries by the Aztecs, Incas, and Chibchas—served as booty for the conquistadors, and were a source of satisfaction and cheerful enthusiasm for Spanish monarchs and of rivalry and greedy ambition for other nations. It was doubtless of such things that men first thought when the discovery of the East Indies became known in Europe; they were given increasingly greater consideration as caravels laden with so much wealth arrived at the ports of Spain and news leaked out of the rich veins which could be easily exploited for the constant enrichment of the Spanish fatherland.

This fact gave rise to studies like that of the Neapolitan Antonio Serra, who about 1613 formulated, examined, and explained the problem which is foremost today, in the midst of the 20th century, in the minds of men and nations: "On Methods of Making Gold and Silver Abundant in Kingdoms Having no Mines."

The ingenious Neapolitan was raising the problem at that time in the hope of finding some means of helping other nations get possession of American gold and silver, then the object of envy and rivalry on the part of the newly formed European nations, which did not hide their annoyance at the growing wealth of Spain. Then for the first time books were written about such matters and the name "political economy" was given to the science which deals with this branch of knowledge. The leaders in this movement were Serra in Italy, Montchrétien in France, and Mun in England, all precursors, or rather initiators, of the mercantilist school, which dominated economics throughout the world until the early years of the 19th century.

The coincidence is striking: the appearance of America as an economic factor in the world was contemporaneous with the rise of nationalism in the great European countries, with the result that the economic relations of Europe with America gave rise to the mercantilist school in the 17th century. And now in the 20th century, when the gold amassed for hundreds of years in Europe has returned to the New World in exchange for the American products which served to feed Europe during the years of the great war, and when the nations of the Old World, impoverished by that war, have substituted paper money for their gold, mercantilism reappears with very much the same arguments as those advanced in the 17th century. First, to nourish the newly born nations with the gold of America, and now, to prevent those same nations from perishing after they had been ruined by the war—on both occasions the world has sought through protected competition *the wealth of America*.

The western continent which, as I have said, offered in the early centuries of its connection with the rest of the world only the wealth represented by metals and precious stones, has gradually revealed its possession of other and much greater wealth which had remained hidden. The discovery of these riches awakened growing interest, for their importance has become increasingly evident as scientific research, the new phases of labor and transportation, and the increase both of American population and of world consumption have encouraged production on a grand scale.

It should be noted that of the 21 Republics into which the two Americas are divided and the Dominion of Canada, those discovered most recently and having no mines of precious metals which were exploited in the distant past have surpassed in wealth and importance their older sisters, who were bedecked with gold, silver, and precious stones when born. Such is the power of agricultural wealth when intelligence, perseverance, and scientific ingenuity are applied to exploit and take advantage of it. This fact proves the correctness of the economic principle relegating money to a secondary role among the elements which together make up wealth as a whole.

The United States and Canada in the north and Argentina and Brazil in the south are the American nations which have extracted the greatest wealth from American soil; but their riches have in the main come from the products of agriculture and the livestock industry, notwithstanding the vast amount of precious metals mined in Anglo-Saxon America during the past century and the growth of its manufacturing, and despite the mining wealth of Brazil.

Chile, Bolivia, and Peru, which have devoted the greater part of their efforts to exploiting their mines and let agriculture be a secondary industry, rank lower economically. Colombia, Mexico, Central America, and Venezuela have not failed to take advantage of their subsoil wealth, but these countries consider their true prosperity to lie in agriculture. They seem to be on the verge of a great economic development, and as they have extremely valuable raw materials it is easy to be optimistic in judging conditions there. The other American countries, continental and insular, plan their national economy with agriculture as its basis.

These observations, both general and specific, show that America has contributed greatly to the wealth of the world, partly because of its varied and valuable metals and fuels, partly because of its manufactures, and partly because of the considerable increase in its population, now numbering about 260,000,000 inhabitants; all of these facts, together with the many scientific discoveries made by Americans, have greatly stimulated international trade and given to wealth as expressed in goods a value far greater than that represented by land or immovable property before the discovery of America.

This increase in world wealth, the variety of both American crops which have been transplanted to other countries, and other crops which have become acclimated in America, together with the new American manufactured products and the vast expansion of the world trade to which the development of the new continent during five centuries has contributed are without any doubt a most valuable contribution to world economics. Yet perhaps it is not entirely in keeping with the facts to say that the American contributions to political economy are proportionate to its share of the increase in universal wealth, if political economy is considered from a purely scientific point of view.

It should be remarked here that at the time of the conquest, just as in the colonial period, the conquerors of America exploited their dominions according to a strictly protective or mercantilist standard, not to promote and develop colonial production, but expressly to exploit the conquered peoples and the rich soil of the Americas for the exclusive benefit of the conquering states, and to the exclusion of all others. The thought of England, Spain, France, Holland and Portugal was identical, prompted wholly by the idea of protecting

all the interests of the fatherland, even though there were minor differences in applying the mercantilist theory because it was put into practice with various degrees of wisdom.

Political economy throughout the world, from the discovery of America to the end of the 18th century, inclined steadily toward protection. This trend was due to the rivalry of the European nations, each of which insisted on appropriating for itself, to the exclusion of all others, the wealth drawn from its American possessions. The New World contributed its wealth to the political economy of the Old, and the constant protests of the American colonists, who saw themselves deprived of free trade, were not successful in modifying that policy, although they did bring about in the end political emancipation, which was undoubtedly fostered by the rivalry of European states.

The independence of the English colonies, which were the first to free themselves, coincided with the appearance of the then novel doctrines which Adam Smith expounded in his immortal studies on the origin of the wealth of nations, which were a development of physiocratic ideas on the natural laws which rule world economics.

The ideas of the Scotch scholar have since then influenced the principles of the liberal school, which were so wisely formulated by its founder and so well developed by his illustrious group of followers. Thanks to these men, the influence of the school spread during the 19th century, especially because these ideas were applied by the government of England, their subsequent prestige being due to the world economic superiority of the British Empire.

But what was happening meanwhile in America? What economic policy was adopted by the independent Republics of the new continent?

The United States, far from abandoning the policy of protection, adopted it but applied it inversely, that is, in order to develop local resources—native wealth, in opposition to the products of England and other competing countries. In this manner it not only turned its capacity of assimilation to its own benefit and proved itself an apt pupil, but gave life and impulse to the amazing development of the country, until it rivaled and even surpassed the fatherland in greatness.

The Latin American Republics also did not, as a general rule, follow the classic principles of free trade. On the contrary, with the exception of relatively short periods in which some of these Republics tried the broadest commercial freedom, protectionism, more or less modified, continued to be the economic rule; it is now most strictly enforced throughout America, stimulated at present by the reaction in favor of the protective system favored by all European nations, with England in the van.

The obvious inference from the foregoing is that the Americas have not contributed any new principles in the realm of ideas to the political economy of the world, although in developing and applying these ideas they have written illuminating studies and commentaries as interesting as they are copious, so that American literature on the economic sciences is one of the richest in the world. Of the economic schools which are vying for the first place in the scientific field in the 20th century some, such as socialism and communism, had their origin in the remote past; others, like mercantilism and protection, appeared at the height of the renaissance; while the classic or liberal school rose in Europe when the new American nations were coming into the world.

But if, properly speaking, the Americas have not contributed to economic science any new principles to supersede those now centuries old which make up that science, it must be admitted that the contribution of American thinking, of the American people, of the genius and the economic industry of Americans, and of their powerful resources, used for the development of world trade and the application of scientific principles, represents the inconceivable abundance contained in the agricultural products of the Americas, which are capable of feeding their more than 250,000,000 inhabitants and supplying markets of consumption in other countries with their excess production. At the same time the American manufactured products are beginning to displace imported ones, opening a new era in American economic progress, which apparently will achieve its goal in the very near future, giving to the American states the framework necessary for attaining their rightful prestige. Such a structure should combine pastoral, agricultural, and manufacturing factors, the proportion varying according to individual conditions, so as to stimulate domestic commerce and international trade.

The reflections here lightly sketched are only general and incomplete, notes on which to base a study more extensive than this article can be. Nevertheless, it must be stated that the foreign trade policy developed by the United States is the most interesting contribution to world economics. At the present time, moreover, a new development is apparently crystallizing, which will have to begin with the definite liquidation of the great depression from which the world is suffering; in this new development the continent of Columbus will have a prominent place in general economics.

RECENT TRENDS AND EVENTS IN THE AGRICULTURE OF LATIN AMERICA

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INTRODUCTION

THE section of the earth's area which falls within the limits of this account includes twenty independent Republics of South America, Central America, North America and the West Indian Archipelago; its climate varies from that of the frigid wastes of southern Patagonia, through temperate Argentina and Chile and the broad torrid belt of central and northern South America, Central America and the West Indies, to the gentler climate again found in northern and highland Mexico; in the matter of elevation, our locus must begin at sea-level and rise, sometimes quite slowly and at others almost precipitately to elevations of two or more miles; it embraces regions receiving only a few inches of annual rainfall and those flooded by as much as 200 inches; it witnesses forms of cultivation ranging from the crudest indigenous practices of hand planting and tilling to large-scale, highly mechanized modern agriculture.

For these reasons it may readily be seen that comparatively few generalizations may safely be made with respect to agriculture in Latin America as a whole. In like manner it becomes apparent that within the limits of this article it is impossible to relate chronologically or in any other comprehensive manner the manifold problems, developments, acts, and practices relating to the various branches of agriculture and animal industry in Latin America.

Rather, we hope to indicate and attempt to analyze the more recent broad trends which are apparent in the agricultural picture presented to us in this great region; to try to orient agricultural Latin America with respect to the rest of the world; and to note some outstanding aspects of the agriculture of the various countries.

It must be remembered that on the whole in Latin America much of the farming for profit has for years been in the hands of large land-owners, and these have kept pretty well abreast of progress in methods, machinery, varieties and breeds, etc. But the large numbers who get a living from the soil are made up of farmers of a low economic standing; most of these live in the hinterland and till their small holdings, or hire out for labor on the estates of the large land-owners. In the main, progress among this class of the rural population has been very slow for a number of reasons, some of which will be touched upon

later on. Again, we may say that Latin America is very thinly populated (Brazil, the most populous country, larger than the continental United States, having around 40,000,000 inhabitants) and her agriculture is extensive rather than intensive. With land fairly cheap and labor scarce, livestock grazing and the raising of cereals occupy a prominent place where climatic and other conditions favor. This is notably true with respect to Argentina, Uruguay, and parts of Chile, Brazil and Mexico.

In some regions natural conditions, plus a world market, are such as to favor the large-scale planting of one main crop. Thus coffee almost alone has sufficed to make Brazil famous, this country producing three-fifths of the world's supply; it also forms one of the chief money crops in Colombia, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Venezuela, and other Caribbean countries. In Cuba and other West Indian countries the main crops are sugar and tobacco. Bananas, citrus, and other tropical and sub-tropical fruits abound in the Caribbean region and further south. In Brazil, Peru, and Mexico cotton is becoming more and more important. In Chile and Argentina many sub-tropical and temperate zone fruits grow extremely well, and the raising of cattle and sheep forms a valuable industry. This sweeping survey must not be taken as in any way setting a limit on the productive capacity of the regions named, but only as indicating some important parts of the complete picture.

Before we leave this general discussion, attention ought to be directed to two important agricultural commodities of which Latin America was once the preeminent producer, but control of which was permitted to pass to British and Dutch colonial possessions in the East Indies and Africa. These are rubber and cacao. While the rubber tree was growing wild in seemingly unlimited quantities in Brazil, no other region could compete successfully. But following the World War, as the nationalist movement spread, as many new uses and a wider demand for rubber were created, and as the natural stand in Brazil grew smaller and smaller, the above-mentioned colonies began to cultivate rubber, applying science, system and money in their experiments, until they were able to control the market. Henry Ford's plantings on the Tapajóz River in northern Brazil furnish the outstanding example of Brazilian possibility of returning rubber production to its original sphere of prominence. In the case of cacao, Ecuador (and to a lesser extent Brazil and Venezuela) found production falling off, because of the "witch-broom" (*escoba de bruja*) and other diseases, at the same time that the Dutch East Indies and British West Africa began a systematic cultivation of the crop. At present Ecuadorean production is only half, or less, of the production some years ago, although Brazilian production meanwhile has grown considerably.

ECONOMIC NATIONALISM

If we were asked to designate the most outstanding development in the agriculture of Latin America over the past five or ten years, we would say that it was its present position as a result of the world-wide play of the principle of economic nationalism. By this principle we mean simply a nation's determination to produce just as many as possible of the goods consumed within its borders. Carried to its extreme, it would mean a great diminution of international trade and finance; however, even the most nationalistic countries would not hinder their own nationals from exporting surpluses if other equally nationalistic countries would only buy them. That the theory is



Courtesy of María González Renault.

A STOCK FARM IN THE CAUCA VALLEY, COLOMBIA.

The livestock industry is assuming larger proportions in many of the subtropical and temperate regions of Latin America.

unsound economically most economists of most countries agree; but it is a very infectious evil which soon spreads all over the world. We have no space, even if we were disposed, to inquire into the causes of this phenomenon; let us turn rather to its effects upon Latin American agriculture.

First, however, it should be pointed out that an extreme policy of economic nationalism is particularly disadvantageous to Latin American agriculture. This is owing to the fact that the countries of Latin America are deficient in both capital and population, two essentials to any self-contained economy. Lacking capital they are forced to borrow foreign capital, and to meet the interest charges and amortization or principal payments thereon it is necessary for them to

export raw products or semimanufactured goods, which have been produced with the aid of the borrowed capital, to the countries lending the money. Lacking in population they are without the human resources essential for any wide industrial activity or intensive agricultural system, both of which a self-sufficient national economy must be able to count upon. The truth must be, then, that to a considerable extent the countries of Latin America have been driven to this policy by outside forces, and are only taking such measures as seem necessary to their best interests in world competition.

In view of the foregoing, read what Dr. Mauricio Pérez Catán, a leading agricultural economist of Argentina, wrote in the *Revista de Ciencias Económicas*, July 1933: "There remains for us, then, no other solution than to try to curb production as little as possible, and to endeavor to conserve our relative advantage in lower cost, sustaining or improving the quality of our products; seeking other uses for the excess of some of them; experimenting with and developing in a quiet way the production of those which we are now importing from countries which close their ports to us. Because it is evident that if we are obliged to participate in the economic war which encircles us on all sides, we must defend ourselves firmly, once and for all, and this by virtue of the elementary principle of the 'struggle for existence'."

Professor Emilio A. Coni, another Argentine writer, is quoted by Dr. Pérez Catán as proposing a system of colonization under which farmers would be made (or at least urged) to raise a minimum of exportable surpluses over and above the amount needed to pay for rent, taxes, education, clothing and other necessities. This differs from the "family farm" of the United States, and the French and Italian systems which demand no restrictions on a maximum production. The proposed system would be a planned economy, but one retaining individual initiative with some measure of community cooperation. In such a system hand labor chiefly would be employed.

But the problem of economic nationalism in Argentina has not remained one of theorizing, for by Presidential Decree of June 30, 1934, there was created in the Department of Agriculture a Commission on National Food Products "charged with studying the most effective means for obtaining the substitution of articles of national manufacture for imported food products." This commission, headed by the Under-Secretary of Agriculture, was made up of 24 leading business men, producers and merchants. The terms of the decree so clearly present the whole question of economic nationalism, and of the Latin American point of view in particular, that we give herewith in full the "considerations" prompting the decree itself:

That within the emergency economic policy applied by the Government, the adjustment of imports to the real purchasing power of the country is a necessary element of recovery;

That the restriction on imports, already begun, ought not to be general, inasmuch as the country should stimulate its exchange with those countries which are active buyers of our agricultural and livestock products, in accordance with the policy which the Government has begun to apply in a definite form;

That likewise the restriction on imports should not affect, if possible, raw materials and capital goods or articles the lessened importation of which would seriously upset national consumption;

That in proportion as restrictions are placed on those articles easily replaceable by national products coming from countries which bar the entrance of our agricultural products, the greater will be the possibility of considering favorably those other articles which for the above technical reasons or those of economic policy should be imported without greater restrictions;

That in these easily replaceable articles an important place is occupied by a series of food products which continue to be imported principally because of the fixed habits of consumers, notwithstanding the immediate possibility of replacing them, in quantity and quality, with national products and the fact that this would not mean a detriment to our foreign exchange, since those articles come generally from the countries which by high tariff duties and quotas have reduced to small figures their imports of Argentine products;

That in order to accelerate this praiseworthy process of replacement it is necessary to designate a commission of experts to study the best means for accomplishing it and to recommend pertinent steps to the government; and in view of such considerations; etc.

Thus we plainly see how reluctantly Argentina has placed tariff barriers against imports, evolving her "buy from those who buy from us" policy. To a much slighter extent, or rather on a smaller scale, this same policy has been adopted by other countries of Latin America.

BREAK-DOWN OF ONE-CROP SYSTEM

We have mentioned the effort to find additional uses for the unexportable surpluses of some of the big money crops in Latin America. The problem is being studied at present from another angle—namely, the cutting down of the large acreage devoted each year, and year after year on the same soil, to these crops. It is likely that if a good world market at good prices for sugar, wheat and other cereals, coffee, bananas, and meat products still existed, slight concern would be felt about the dangers of monoculture, or single-crop farming. Yet Dr. Alberto Boerger, Director of the Instituto Fitotécnico y Semillero Nacional "La Estanzuela", Colonia, Uruguay, in a number of articles has set forth his impressions and the results of experiments conducted at his station along these lines. He says that the apparent ease, by means of power machinery demanding little labor and with the wide and fertile pampas of the Río de la Plata at hand, of planting immense areas to wheat, oats, corn, flax and forage crops has resulted in grave consequences for the region even aside from over-production. The system demands the planting not only of a single variety covering a large area but even of a particular pure strain; this exposes the grower to the danger of total crop loss

by invasion of some new noxious insect or disease. He cites as an example of this the losses caused in Uruguay and Argentina by the *Puccinia glumarum*, a serious fungus which was unknown in the Río de la Plata until 1929; by now resistant strains and varieties of wheat have been produced. He mentions also, in addition to the foregoing catastrophic losses, the slow weakening of the vegetative vigor of crops as a result of the one-sided exploitation of the soil. Even by selecting seeds of certain varieties which seem resistant to monoculture, Dr. Boerger doubts the permanent wisdom of discarding the advantages of rotation in crops.



AN EXPERIMENTAL CANE FIELD.

Owing to climatic and other conditions many regions have been largely devoted to one crop, such as sugar, an agricultural policy which is gradually changing to one in favor of diversification.

This decision, perhaps largely forced by loss of markets, will eventually be of assistance to the countries now devoting most of their cultivable land to the production of one, two or three crops. There is, of course, no doubt that for ease of production and marketing monoculture presents the ideal form of cultivation; but the above disadvantages pointed out by Dr. Boerger ultimately, as a nation- or region-wide practice, outweigh such advantages.

The countries of Latin America, both because of the world-wide restriction of international trade and because they have normally reached the proper point in their economic development, are turning to crop diversification. By this means they hope to reduce surpluses in the major crops and imports of essential agricultural commodities. In the case of foreign agricultural products which simply will not

grow in the new habitat, or whose growth is obviously uneconomic, attempts are being made to grow substitute crops. This has occasioned considerable difficulty, the food habits of the people being very difficult to change. The case of wheat may well be taken as an example.

THE CASE OF WHEAT IN LATIN AMERICA

The crop perhaps most greatly and universally needed in Latin America, excepting of course in the cereal-growing River Plate countries, is wheat. No fitting substitute has been found for it in bread-making. In Cuba a few years ago the government attempted by decree to force the substitution of about 30 percent of yuca flour for that of wheat in every 100 percent of flour used: but this law was repealed by Decree-Law No. 507 of September 21, 1934. Other countries also encouraged the partial or total substitution of yuca or of some cereal other than wheat as a source of flour; yet the demand for wheat flour exists as strong today as ever. And nearly every country in Latin America, whether possessing or not the necessary climate, elevation and soil, has attempted to produce at least a part of its wheat requirements.

In Peru, an elaborate executive decree (August 27, 1934) was recently promulgated to govern the commercial use of wheat and wheat flour. According to this decree,

Every mill in the national territory which uses foreign wheat must employ in the manufacture of flour a minimum percentage of national wheat which will be fixed periodically by the Minister of Promotion in accordance with supplies of national wheat on hand and the volume of wheat imported;

Imported flour offered for sale in Peru must be mixed with the same percentage of national flour as that given in the foregoing paragraph, so that importers must acquire the flour of national wheat necessary or the equivalent quantity of national wheat;

The obligation of mills to acquire national wheat refers to wheats of one variety, dry and clean, with a minimum specific weight of 74 kilos per hectoliter and a maximum admixture of foreign matter (straw, sand, broken grains, seeds, and earth) of 4 percent;

The mills of the Republic, as well as the flour importers referred to in the first two paragraphs of this Decree, shall buy national wheat direct from the producer either on the market of Lima or Callao, or else at the production sources through their duly authorized agents; etc.

Wheat is being grown in Guatemala on lands from 5,000 to 10,000 feet above sea level, chiefly in Chimaltenango, Quezaltenango, Totonicapán, Huehuetenango, San Marcos, Sololá and Jalapa. It had been tried in municipalities of other departments but abandoned entirely, as in Jutiapa and Chiquimula. According to one writer in a recent number of the official monthly publication of the Guatemalan Department of Agriculture, the farmers, mostly native Indians, do not practice crop rotation and few use fertilizers, except occasionally manure

and ashes. Here is another example, although widely separated both in distance and magnitude, of the monoculture of Uruguay and Argentina. There are, of course, exceptions where farmers have obtained good results with native wheat and with varieties imported from abroad; the "Grade Standard" and "2x22" varieties from Canada have given exceptional results in Sololá. Two Italian, one Californian, two Belgian Congo, and a Peruvian variety of wheat have been especially recommended in Guatemala. According to official sources Guatemala in 1933 had 9,472.5 manzanas planted to wheat, which produced 114,000 quintals. The Departments of San Marcos and Quezaltenango together produced about one-half of this.

Chile, a country in which wheat growing and flour milling have assumed considerable importance, has passed a number of laws and decrees regulating the industry. For instance, there is a decree setting forth the bases for determining the relation of prices between wheat and flour (Decree No. 36, January 30, 1931); the same with respect to flour and bread (Decree No. 59, February 11, 1931); a decree with the force of law which raises the tax against flour mills not belonging to an association; and a decree exempting from payment of all duties flour and corn mills (Decree No. 95, April 11, 1931).

The Department of Agriculture of Ecuador several years ago established a separate division called "The Wheat Campaign", under Señor Manuel Chalons. The program of this campaign was divided into three parts:

- (1) To study and survey the wheat growing regions and present methods of cultivation, and to see if native strains might be improved. This study centered chiefly in the northern part of Pichincha Province.

- (2) To make planting trials with foreign varieties. Those of the United States and Argentina were tried, with the latter giving the better results. Most of the Department's experiments with wheat were made at the Station near Quito.

- (3) To make comparative plantings of native and foreign varieties.

The general results of Ecuador's wheat campaign show that the European varieties do not grow well at all.

What has been said thus far about steps taken in a few of the Latin American countries to improve and increase their production of wheat in an effort to reduce imports might be made to cover practically all these countries. It might also be made to apply in kind, even though to a lesser degree, to other crops now being imported, such as cotton, pork and pork products, vegetables, poultry, etc. We have devoted as much detail to our discussion of wheat as we have so as to include the reasons motivating the various national programs; these reasons, however, may be taken as typical of those accepted in the remaining countries and for the other crops.

Before leaving the main problem of economic nationalism which now is operating in Latin America as in the rest of the world, we wish to point out that as regards agriculture the usual difficulties of disposing of surpluses and meeting shortages become more pronounced. The most facile solution of these phenomena of a nation's economy presupposes a free movement of goods within and across that nation's boundaries; but now that movement encounters tariffs, quotas, restrictions, closed markets and other barriers to be combated or to be erected in retaliation. Mainly local uses must then be found for surpluses, and domestic measures provided to meet the shortages. One of the favorite steps for meeting the former problem is the for-



Courtesy of Leon M. Estabrook.

A COMBINE IN AN ARGENTINE WHEAT FIELD.

Argentina is one of the world's leading wheat producers, and practically every other nation of Latin America has conducted experiments in the cultivation of this useful grain with the objective of at least partially supplying the domestic demand.

mation of a federal stabilizing agency which buys up, or advances loans upon, the crop to dispose of it either (a) at better future market prices, (b) at a loss, to local or foreign buyers, or (c) by destroying it. Examples of these are furnished by the Brazilian coffee program, the Cuban action with regard to sugar, and the meat and grain stabilizing activities in Argentina. Another means of combating surpluses is to reduce acreage; we have spoken of the voluntary break-down of monoculture in the cereal and flax regions of Uruguay and Argentina. To reduce shortages, on the other hand, the various countries have established vigorous programs to increase national production of the most needed commodities. This is treated in the foregoing paragraphs and will be touched upon later.

NEED FOR TRAINED AGRICULTURAL SCIENTISTS

From the above remarks about the Latin American system of extensive agriculture, its shortage of money, and the backwardness of large numbers of the population, it is to be expected that a great deal of attention should not have been paid to the training of experts in the various branches of agriculture and animal industry. This condition applies, of course, to a considerably less extent in the larger countries. Now, however, in view of the need for developing a more balanced economy within the countries themselves, and recognizing that agriculture consists of something more than planting seeds and harvesting the crop, the various governments are realizing that they actually are in need of scientists who can speak with authority in the many fields of agriculture, and of adequate laboratories, libraries, and research establishments for carrying out the necessary studies for resolving problems as they arise. To fill this need, many of the governments are entering into contract for a given period of time with trained experts from other Latin American countries, Europe or the United States to establish new bureaus in the Federal Department of Agriculture, to study some particular problem of agriculture calling for Federal intervention, to establish new schools of agriculture or experimental stations, etc. In most cases much good has resulted from this hiring of foreign experts; there are occasional examples of breach of contract by one or the other of the parties concerned, which serve only to retard the forward progress of agriculture in the countries involved. Another drawback pointed out by officials is that appropriations for the purpose are often most inadequate, or are discontinued before the work of these experts has progressed far enough to allow them to leave safely.

In general, however, there has been a notable advance made in the establishment of new centers of training and research, as well as in the broadening and improvement of existing institutions. The Pan American Union has on its lists some 250 schools, institutes, colleges, and universities which are giving instruction in agriculture at the present time. There is not space here to go into the agricultural education programs of all the countries in this area; however, we give herewith in some detail that of Mexico, which we believe to be a program well balanced for all ages and in general representative of the agricultural training provided in Latin America.

There are in Mexico four kinds of Federal public schools which offer agricultural and general education: the *escuelas rurales* (rural schools), the *escuelas centrales agrícolas* (central agricultural schools), the *escuelas regionales campesinas* (regional agricultural schools), and the *escuelas normales rurales* (rural normal schools).

Each rural school has from one to three teachers, is co-educational, and offers instruction in the daytime to children and in the afternoon

and at night to adults. One of its chief ends is to raise the standard of living of the Indians and mestizos by teaching them agriculture, Spanish, and hygiene. In 1934, according to the report of the Secretary of Public Education dated August 31, 1934, there were then 7,631 rural schools in Mexico with a total enrollment in the day and night classes of some 545,000 students.

The central agricultural schools are the high schools, where students from the rural schools may perfect their knowledge of agriculture. The students, entirely male, are mostly farmers' sons who, upon leaving, return to the pursuit of an improved form of agriculture. These schools offer a three-year course of practical and yet scientific



HAITIAN AGRICULTURAL STUDENTS.

Throughout Latin America emphasis is placed on practical agricultural instruction in the educational program of rural schools.

instruction about machinery, planting methods, and elementary economics. In July of 1934, there were in Mexico five central agricultural schools, located in as many states, with a total enrollment of 496.

The regional agricultural schools have been in existence only about a year, several of them having been created from central schools already established. Their broad program, which ranges from the giving of primary instruction to the partial training of rural leaders, is summed up by the Secretary of Public Education as intended to make them the "representative training-schools for the rural community, which inspires and guides the social life." In July of 1934 there were six regional agricultural schools, with an enrollment of about 900.

The rural normal schools, also of very recent origin in Mexico, have as their chief aim the instruction and preparation of teachers for the rural schools. In July of 1934 there were eleven of these co-educational schools, located in as many states of Mexico, with a total enrollment of 812 students.

EXTENSION SERVICES

There can be no very distinct line drawn between the problems of agricultural education and agricultural extension work, by the latter of which terms we mean broadly the diffusion of knowledge and methods among the farmers themselves. This is true in Latin America as everywhere else. This phase of educating the masses of rural peoples has always lagged behind the more formal processes of education, and it is only in comparatively recent times that it has begun to receive due attention throughout the world. The countries of Latin America are alive to its usefulness, and it may be said that extension work is being kept abreast of agricultural technique and formal education.

That educated leaders in Latin America are aware of the need for getting information before the farmers is made evident by the very recent words of Mr. M. Yewdiukow, Director of the *Escuela de Práctica y Campo Experimental de Agronomía* of Paysandú, Uruguay: "Modern organized agronomical education seeks to penetrate the mass of the farmers for the purpose of widening the sphere of their knowledge, presenting to them the results of the latest experiments conducted by the stations, controlling their projects and aiding them in the formation of organizations to handle their produce. Among the principles for effecting this rapid penetration today, one states that for each 1,200 farms there should be at least one course of teaching. The reason for this is that one school, whose enrollment ought to average not more than 40 students, can dispense over a period of 30 years (one generation) agricultural education to one or more members of every rural family in its district." Incidentally, this author says, on the foregoing basis Uruguay, with its 60,000 farms, should have 48 such centers of rural education instead of the 6 it now has.

There are definite handicaps to extension activities in Latin America. In most cases the rural population is widely scattered; roads, railroads, steamship services, and other forms of communication are most inadequate; the low educational standards of large numbers of the indigenous population make comprehension of scientific knowledge in agriculture difficult for them; and funds for the maintenance of a good staff of extension workers are often grossly inadequate. On the other hand, there are certain factors favoring a system of state-supervised diffusion of agricultural information. Most of the countries have strong central governments, thus making

it much easier to carry out any program embarked upon without fear of encountering antagonism or conflict on the part of local governmental units.

Besides all of the usual agencies for putting scientific data and modern methods before the farmers in Latin America, we wish to dwell briefly upon perhaps the most modern one, which seems peculiarly adapted to a region whose forms of land communication have not yet been highly developed. This agency is the radio. The potential influence of this system in the realm of agriculture is almost unlimited, and that this has already been realized is apparent.

AGRICULTURAL CREDIT

In order to provide working capital for farmers to finance the increased production programs, and in an effort to offset the more or less restricted credit that the ordinary banking houses are permitted to extend, many of the Latin American countries have set up special agricultural credit banks with varying degrees of control by the government.

In Chile the *Caja de Crédito Agrario* was established in 1927 to provide more ample and less burdensome credits for farmers. A Farm Loan Fund was established with the issue of 50,000 shares of a total value of 2,000,000 pesos, which were wholly subscribed by the State Mortgage Bank, the parent institution. This bank was also empowered by law to raise 10,000,000 pesos abroad for financing the credit at the lowest rate of interest and under the easiest conditions. Loans aggregating millions have been made to farmers for such varied purposes as the purchase of livestock, seeds, fertilizers, and tools; loan refunds; orchard planting; development of the lumber industry; and work on irrigation projects. In order to serve the small farmer with loans as low as 200 pesos, the Caja has arranged to have the local savings banks act as agents. The lumber industry was given preference in a plan to save the forest reserves, now placed at over 12,000,000 acres, having some 460,000,000 pesos worth of growing timber. The fruit export and poultry industries are also being favored with easy credit.

In Argentina a complex system of agricultural credit has been worked out by the *Banco de la Nación*. To cooperate with the campaign conducted by Ministry of Agriculture to have farmers plant selected seed, this bank through its branches lends not more than 20,000 pesos, at 6 percent interest, to cover purchases of such seed up to 70 percent of their value. The maximum loan period is for 180 days, with definite expiration dates for the different cereals. The grain must be insured unless stored in silos belonging to railroads "with full liability", although insurance may also be dispensed with if the grain is stored in warehouses belonging to the applicant.

The *Banco de la Nación* also offers a series of loans for harvesting, shelling, and bagging corn, and on corn which has been shelled and bagged. An owner or a tenant paying rent need give only the simple signature as guarantee, while other borrowers must sign a lien or obtain the signatures of guarantors. Here too the rate of interest is 6 percent and the term 180 days.

There are still other graduated loans for harvesting, threshing and bagging wheat, linseed, barley, oats, and rye, and on these grains themselves either bagged or in bulk; other loans for the purchase of harvesting machinery and tractors; special loans to farmers who have lost crops and need money on which to live; loans for the establishment of small farms (*granjas*); loans for the purchase of good breeding stock of dairy cattle, beef cattle and sheep; loans on livestock being held for sale; and, finally, loans for shearing expenses and on wool.

In addition to the foregoing, the bank lent in 1929 a total of 162,978,300 pesos in regional loans to farmers to develop maté, cotton, grapes and wine, sugarcane, timber, alfalfa, tobacco, rice, oranges, wool, cheese, and meat salting and curing.

In Ecuador agricultural credit is being extended almost solely by the Mortgage Bank of Ecuador (*Banco Hipotecario del Ecuador*), which was set up in 1928. The aims of the bank, according to the President's first annual report, were: (1) to issue and sell on the foreign market its own mortgage certificates (bonds); (2) to bring about maximum agricultural production and exportation; (3) to cooperate in a balanced development of the nation's wealth; and (4) to build up the mortgage paper of the associated banks. Of the 796 requests for loans received by the bank the first year, 698 were for agricultural purposes; and of the 9,751,032.53 sucres actually granted (42 percent of the total requested), 8,751,007.54 sucres (90 percent) went to agriculture.

In seeking to supply the needs of the farmers for capital to increase their output, the Mortgage Bank grants both short- and long-term credit. The Short Term Agricultural Division furnishes, in various forms, ready capital needed for the purchase of seeds, the harvesting, hauling, and sale of crops, and the purchase of livestock for fattening. The Mortgage Division attends primarily to phases of agricultural development requiring a longer period of time: livestock improvement, importing and housing of pedigreed animals for breeding purposes, formation of pastures, planting of coffee, cotton, sugarcane, and other crops, building of irrigation works, consolidating of agricultural debts, buying of land, etc. The interest rate on long-term loans at first was 9 percent, later reduced by law to 8 percent; and even with the 1¼ percent commission, the director of the Bank claims that this rate compares favorably with the 12 percent charged by other banks on long-term loans.

AGRICULTURAL COOPERATIVES

The last outstanding development of recent years in the agriculture of Latin America of which mention will here be made, is the inception and growth of the cooperative movement among farmers. In some cases the movement has been voluntary, in others more or less imposed by the government for the common good, yet by now it has almost come to be regarded as imperative if small, individual producers are to compete with larger enterprises of farming and industry.

Brazil was the first Latin American country to pass legislation favoring cooperatives. Its basic law dating from January 5, 1907, applies to consumer and rural credit cooperatives alike. The movement has



A NURSERY OF LEMON TREES.

In several republics liberal agricultural credit has been extended to farmers for crop development and harvesting.

spread greatly in the past ten years, and is now strongest in the regions around Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, Nuevo Friburgo, Nictheroy and Santos. The various Brazilian States aid the cooperatives with exemptions from certain taxes, while on January 8, 1921, the Federal Government by Law No. 4251 set aside 1,000 contos per year for loans to promote cooperative societies. Even municipalities favor these organizations by removing or reducing certain property and other taxes. The new Constitution of Brazil provides that one-fifth of the membership of Congress shall be made up of deputies from the professions, elected by indirect suffrage through syndicates, or unions, which are divided for the purpose into four groups, of which agriculture and stock-raising constitute one.

In Argentina the government began to take cognizance of agricultural cooperatives in 1926. On October 8 of that year the *Banco de la Nación* was legally empowered to grant financial assistance, arrange amortization of loans, and otherwise aid in the formation of cooperative societies. On the twentieth of the following December the Government passed Law No. 11388, which officially recognized the cooperative movement and set forth regulations to guide the formation and operation of agricultural cooperatives. Five years later Law No. 11206, of September 10, 1931, set up an office of Cooperative Extension to assist the farmers in establishing and conducting such organizations. The monthly magazine *La Cooperación Libre* is devoted to all forms of cooperation within and without Argentina. Perhaps the most recent, and yet one of the largest, cooperatives is the nation-wide Corporation of Meat Producers, created and officially approved in the fall of 1934. It is incorporated for 50 years, with a maximum capital of 30,000,000 pesos. It will operate under the auspices of the National Meat Board (*Junta Nacional de Carnes*)—one of several large government agencies for dealing with the national crisis—created by Law No. 11747, October 7, 1933. The corporation is empowered to deal in all phases of the meat industry, increased exports being one of its chief interests. Smaller and less ambitious cooperatives are growing up throughout the pampas, and instilling a new hope in the rural population.

In Chile a general law (No. 4058, September 8, 1924) was promulgated to deal with various kinds of cooperatives. However on January 15, 1929, the basic law (No. 4531) creating agricultural cooperatives in the Republic was passed. It is a most comprehensive document, setting forth in detail the object and range of an agricultural cooperative, its legal requirements and status, regulations about financing and membership, administration, etc. An office in the Ministerio de Fomento was to be charged with passing on applications, registering organizations already in existence, and in general supervising such societies. Various advantages are set forth. It is apparent that in Chile the movement is closely connected with the government. More recent reports are not yet available.

The situation in Colombia is somewhat similar to that in Chile. There the government promulgated on December 7, 1931, a basic law (No. 134) which laid down the requirements and privileges of cooperatives in nearly every detail; this law was modified and improved on May 17, 1932 (Decree 874). Cooperative societies operate under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Industries. The movement seems to be gathering momentum slowly, with the "Banana Cooperative of the Magdalena" at Santa Marta already proving beneficial to the smaller growers.

In Ecuador the movement thus far is slight and voluntary. On October 17, 1933, the Government approved the statutes and by-laws

of the first cooperative, the *Cooperativa Agrícola Bellarista* Santa Rosa, Province of El Oro. Its members are principally coffee growers.

While agricultural cooperatives have existed in Mexico for a considerable time, it was not until 1927 that the government passed regulatory legislation. By Presidential Decree of January 21 of that year a law was put into operation to regulate "cooperativas agrícolas, industriales y de consumo." This law recognized both individual cooperatives and federations of similar cooperatives; it specified the kinds of activity properly falling within the sphere of a cooperative and prescribed the contents for constitutions of cooperatives desiring charters. A special training school for this form of organization was set up in Mexico City in May 1930 under the Department of Public Education. Not only are voluntary cooperatives growing rapidly in



COTTON GATHERED BY MEMBERS OF A MEXICAN COOPERATIVE.

An outstanding movement in agriculture during recent years is the development of cooperatives, particularly in Mexico.

Mexico, but the government is actively fostering them. By decree of March 19, 1931, it was stated that chicle thenceforward should be exploited by cooperatives. Again by decree of March 26, 1931, the lettuce industry was likewise placed under cooperative control. The cooperative of lettuce growers is one of the most active in Mexico, having a membership of around 20,000 in the principal producing regions of Potosí, Nuevo León, Tamaulipas, Zacatecas, and Coahuila. Most of the output is exported, chiefly to the United States. The banana industry likewise sees the growth of cooperatives in Mexico. Of the 20,000 planters estimated to be growing coffee, about 50 percent are organized in cooperatives.

In Peru a national department of cooperatives has been set up (1933), with divisions devoted respectively to organization, communication, economic matters, propaganda, statistics, and records. As a

result of the work of the propaganda division, there was organized in Lima the *Sociedad Nacional de Cooperativas Tihuantinsuyo*. The first cooperative of fruit growers was *La Cooperativa Frutera de Tacna*; it was established in August 1934. A cooperative in Pacasmayo was formed during the same year, ostensibly to aid the rice growers of that region.

Finally, Uruguay may be listed as one of the countries where the value of agricultural cooperatives has long been appreciated by both the government and the people. On August 24, 1920, there was created by law the *Instituto Cooperativo de la República* in Montevideo. It seems to have acted as a nation-wide organization for the purchase and distribution of food, clothing and other necessities. Only two notices of cooperatives of a purely agricultural nature have reached our attention: by resolution of July 30, 1931, Congress voted sufficient funds to pay the organizing expenses of the first Egg Exporting Cooperative in Uruguay; and by another resolution of October 8 of the same year a committee was appointed to establish the bases for a cooperative for the exporting of farm products generally.

SUMMARY

It has been attempted, in the foregoing pages, to indicate a few of the more prominent trends and point out the more salient events and problems in the agriculture of Latin America. An effort has been made to show how the play of the forces of economic nationalism, with its concomitant high tariffs and other trade restrictions and government aid and protection of agriculture, has affected this industry. The need for more scientists trained in all the branches of agriculture and allied industries has been pointed out, along with the difficulties of getting the results of science directly before the farmers in usable form. Examples of the agricultural credit plans in various Latin American countries have been presented. And, finally, there has been a discussion of the establishment and growth of agricultural cooperatives within some of these nations.

It was hoped that this present analysis might have included, had space permitted, a few more general features of the work being done in Latin American agriculture; for instance, the universal practice of constantly experimenting with plants and animals from other countries in an effort to add new economic crops or improved livestock to the national industry. Such instances of individual effort and attainment as the Mexican Six-Year Plan, and the creation of a separate Ministry of Agriculture in Colombia, should also properly have found space in this survey. But it is hoped that what has been said may serve at least to stimulate a wider interest in this basic industry of the twenty Latin American Republics.

EVENTS OF PAN AMERICAN SIGNIFICANCE DURING 1934

JANUARY

1. Mexico inaugurates the Six Year Plan.
5. The Bolivian-Paraguayan truce ends at midnight and fighting is resumed in the Chaco.
8. Chile reorganizes the nitrate industry.
15. A junta replaces Provisional President Grau San Martín in Cuba; Carlos Hevia, appointed president by the junta, resigns a day after taking office.
18. Colonel Carlos Mendieta is proclaimed Provisional President of Cuba.
19. Mexico ratifies the silver agreement of the London Economic Conference.
22. President Roosevelt confers with the diplomatic representatives of the Latin American Republics on the recognition of the Cuban Government; recognition is extended by the United States January 23 and by other governments later.
25. Guatemala, Nicaragua, and Honduras recognize the Government of President Martínez in El Salvador. The United States does so on January 26.
30. The United States gold dollar is devalued to 59 cents, gold coinage is abandoned, and gold reserves are nationalized.

FEBRUARY

3. The provisional constitution of Cuba is promulgated.
6. Peru and Ecuador request that the United States give its consent to the sending of delegates to Washington to discuss the adjustment of their common frontier in accordance with the Ponce-Castro Protocol of 1924. This protocol provides that the area with respect to which the two countries cannot agree shall be submitted to the arbitral decision of the President of the United States.
22. Mexico establishes an absentee tax ranging from 2 to 4 percent on gross earnings and income of all kinds.

MARCH

6. President Roosevelt transmits to Congress the results of a reconnaissance survey of the Inter-American Highway between Panama and the United States showing 40 percent of all-weather roads completed over its 3,250 miles with an additional 30 percent passable in good or fair weather.
9. The Second Export-Import Bank, designed to stimulate trade between the United States and Cuba, is created. On April 30 the Bank lent Cuba \$4,000,000 for the purchase of silver to be coined and used for payment of government salaries and expenses, agricultural reforms, and a program of public works to relieve unemployment.

15-April 12.

- Delegates of the Governments of Guatemala, Costa Rica, Honduras, Nicaragua, and El Salvador meet in Guatemala City to discuss matters of common interest to their respective nations, and adopt a Treaty of Central American Fraternity to replace the General Treaty of Peace and Amity signed in 1923, which had been denounced by several governments.
22. President Gabriel Terra is re-elected by the Constituent Assembly of Uruguay for a 4-year term beginning in 1935.
23. Peru celebrates the fourth centenary of the founding of the Spanish city of Cuzco.
28. President Mendieta invites the Foreign Policy Association to organize a commission to study the economic and social problems confronting Cuba with a view to formulating a reconstruction program. The commission arrived in Cuba early in June and its report was published in January 1935.

APRIL

14. Pan American Day is observed for the fourth time by the American Republics as a reminder of their community of origin and interests and desire for a deeper mutual understanding.
15. President Vincent confers with President Roosevelt on problems arising in the relations between the Governments of Haiti and the United States.
24. The United States and Mexico sign a special claims convention and a general claims protocol intended to expedite the disposition of claims pending between the two governments. The convention, providing for an *en bloc* settlement of special claims of United States citizens against Mexico, was ratified by the United States on June 15 and by Mexico on November 22. The instruments of ratification were exchanged at Mexico City on December 13.
25. The Government of Nicaragua makes Nacascolo, on the Gulf of Fonseca, a port of entry to facilitate trade between Nicaragua and El Salvador, Honduras, and the United States.
27. Fourteen American Republics, including the United States, sign a declaration of intention to adhere to the Argentine Anti-War Pact, originally signed on October 10, 1933, by Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, Paraguay, and Uruguay. The Dominican Republic adheres on July 18, thus completing the roster of the twenty-one American Republics.

MAY

5. The Mexican Government cancels its note of withdrawal from the League of Nations.
16. General Rafael L. Trujillo is re-elected President of the Dominican Republic.
24. The plenipotentiaries of Colombia and Peru, assembled in Rio de Janeiro to discuss the Leticia incident, sign a Protocol of Peace, Friendship and Cooperation.
28. President Roosevelt issues a proclamation forbidding the sale of arms and munitions to Bolivia and Paraguay after having consulted the Governments of the American Republics and received the assurance of their cooperation.

29. A treaty of relations between the United States and Cuba abrogating the Platt Amendment is signed in Washington. Ratifications were exchanged on June 9, on which date the treaty went into effect.

JUNE

12. President Roosevelt is empowered by Congress to lower the tariff in reciprocal trade agreements with foreign nations.
15. The United States Senate ratifies the Geneva (June 17, 1925) Convention for the supervision of international trade in arms, ammunitions and implements of war.
18. President Roosevelt signs the bill permitting establishment of free zones at New York and other ports.
- 24-28. President-elect López of Colombia makes a good-will trip to the United States, visiting Mexico and Central America on his return to his native country. At the Pan American Union he stated: "The harmony between our democracies and the United States is now unmarred by the slightest lack of confidence. The policy of the 'good neighbor', pursued loyally and unswervingly by the present Government of the United States, has in a year's time fundamentally changed the atmosphere of anxiety or discordance in which our international relations were carried on, threatened for many years by the danger of intervention or the curtailment of the national sovereignty of some one of the members of the Pan American Union."
29. President Roosevelt declares an embargo on the shipment of arms, explosives, munitions, and other equipment of military purposes to Cuba, except under license from the State Department.

JULY

5. President Roosevelt visits Haiti, Colombia (July 10), and Panama (July 11).
15. The second republican constitution of Brazil is promulgated.
A multilateral commercial agreement for the promotion of international trade is opened for signature to all nations of the world by the Pan American Union. The stipulations of this agreement prevent countries from invoking the most favored nation clause in bilateral treaties entered into with states which are parties to multilateral treaties, in order to obtain the advantage accorded to the signatories of the multilateral treaties, without assuming the corresponding obligations.
20. Dr. Getulio Vargas, chief of the Provisional Government of Brazil, is inaugurated constitutional president.

AUGUST

7. Dr. Alfonso López is inaugurated President of Colombia to succeed Dr. Enrique Olaya Herrera.
15. The last detachment of United States marines leaves Haiti.
16. The Brazilian Clipper, providing the fastest and most luxurious accommodations offered to air travelers between the Americas, starts on her initial flight from Miami to Buenos Aires.
18. President Terra visits President Vargas at Rio de Janeiro, further strengthening the ties between Uruguay and Brazil by the signature of several treaties.

20. The United States becomes a member of the International Labor Organization.
24. The United States and Cuba sign a reciprocity agreement granting each other substantial reductions on certain customs duties.
- 31-Sept. 7. The Secretary of State of the United States gives notice of intention to negotiate reciprocal trade agreements with Haiti, Colombia, Brazil, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua. (The agreement with Brazil was signed at Washington on Feb. 2, 1935.)

SEPTEMBER

1. Dr. J. M. Velasco Ibarra is inaugurated President of Ecuador to succeed Provisional President Abelardo Montalvo.
- 9-16. The Second Inter-American Conference on Education meets in Santiago, Chile.
28. Ecuador joins the League of Nations.
29. At Mexico City the National Palace of Fine Arts is formally opened by President Abelardo Rodríguez.

OCTOBER

9. The Thirty-Second International Eucharistic Congress meets in Buenos Aires.
20. The Mexican Congress adopts compulsory socialistic education in all schools.
30. In Argentina, a nation-wide cooperative organization of cattle growers is formed for the processing of livestock.

NOVEMBER

3. The Peruvian Congress approves the protocol negotiated at Rio de Janeiro for the settlement of the Leticia incident.
5. Negotiation of agreements between the United States and Panama for the purpose of "removing all those differences and causes of misunderstanding which have arisen in the relations between the two countries as a result of the construction and operation of the Panama Canal" is initiated in Washington.
- 12-24. The Ninth Pan American Sanitary Conference and the Second Pan American Conference on Eugenics and Homoculture meet in Buenos Aires.
28. President Daniel Salamanca of Bolivia resigns; Vice-President José Luis Tejada Sorzano assumes the presidency (November 29).

DECEMBER

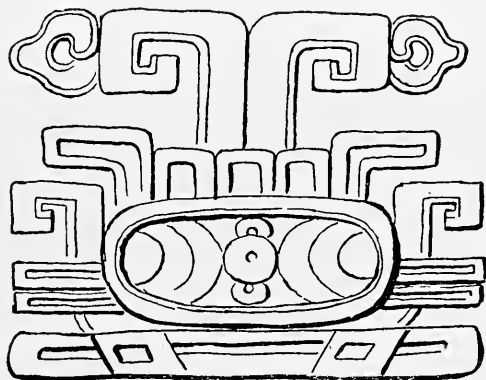
1. General Lázaro Cárdenas is inaugurated President of Mexico for a 6-year term, succeeding President Abelardo L. Rodríguez.
6. Ecuador celebrates the fourth centenary of the founding of Quito.
- 16-19. The Third Pan American Congress on Tuberculosis meets in Montevideo.
26. Panama takes the first decisive step towards becoming an inter-American free trade distribution center by providing for the complete elimination of import duties beginning July 1, 1935 on about 600 items of imported merchandise regarded as not advantageously produced in the Republic.

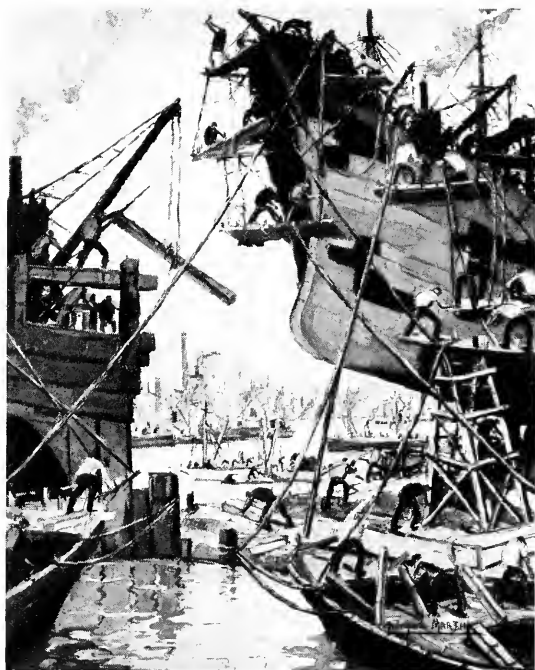
NECROLOGY

- Manuel Augusto Montes de Oca, distinguished Argentine scholar and diplomat, Jan. 27.
- Leonidas Pacheco, Secretary of Foreign Affairs of Costa Rica, Feb. 7.
- Claudio Williman, ex-President of Uruguay, Feb. 9.
- José María González Valencia, Colombian statesman and diplomat, March 4.
- Cecilia Grierson, first woman physician in Argentina, April 10.
- Alfredo Zayas y Alfonso, ex-President of Cuba, April 11.
- Juan Ramón Uriarte, Minister of El Salvador in Mexico, April 12.
- Edwin V. Morgan, former Ambassador of the United States in Brazil, April 16.
- William H. Woodin, Ex-Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, May 3.
- Ángel Gallardo, President of the National University of Argentina, May 13.
- Julia Lopes de Almeida, one of the foremost literary figures of Brazil, May 30.
- Miguel Couto, an outstanding figure in Brazilian medical circles, June 6.
- José de Medeiros e Albuquerque, distinguished Brazilian educator, journalist, and poet, June 9.
- Ángel M. Soler, Dominican penologist, June 28.
- Alfredo Colmo, President of the Argentine American Cultural Institute, July 6.
- Henry T. Rainey, Speaker of the House of Representatives of the United States, Aug. 19.
- José María Escalier, distinguished Bolivian physician, Sept. 3.
- Solón Polo, eminent international jurist and Minister of Foreign Affairs of Peru, Sept. 4.
- Víctor Mercante, Argentine educator, Sept. 20.
- Emiliano González Novero, former President of Paraguay, Oct. 18.
- Martín F. Sosa, Comptroller General of Panama, Oct. 26.
- Bailey K. Ashford, Colonel, U. S. A. Medical Corps (retired), noted for his contribution to the cure of hookworm and anemia, Nov. 1.
- Carlos Chagas, eminent Brazilian scientist and leader in public health, Nov. 8.
- Henrique Maximiano Coelho Netto, leading Brazilian author, Nov. 28.
- Pío Romero Bosque, ex-President of El Salvador, Dec. 9.
- Manuel Márquez Sterling, Ambassador of Cuba to the United States, Dec. 9.
- José Santos Chocano, noted Peruvian poet, Dec. 13.

MODERN ART IN LATIN AMERICA

THE BULLETIN of the Pan American Union takes pleasure in publishing in the following pages illustrations of the work of some modern American artists. It should be observed that in making this selection it was necessary to take into consideration the limitations of space, the photographs either sent especially for this issue or available in the files of the Pan American Union, their suitability for reproduction, and other matters. The BULLETIN expresses its thanks to the National Academies and Schools of Fine Arts, the artists and other individuals who courteously cooperated in this effort to make better known the art of the American Republics, in harmony with the desire expressed by the Seventh International Conference of American States.





"SHIP UNDER REPAIR,"
BY B. QUINQUELA
MARTIN (ARGENTINA).

Courtesy of the National Museum of Fine Arts, Buenos Aires.



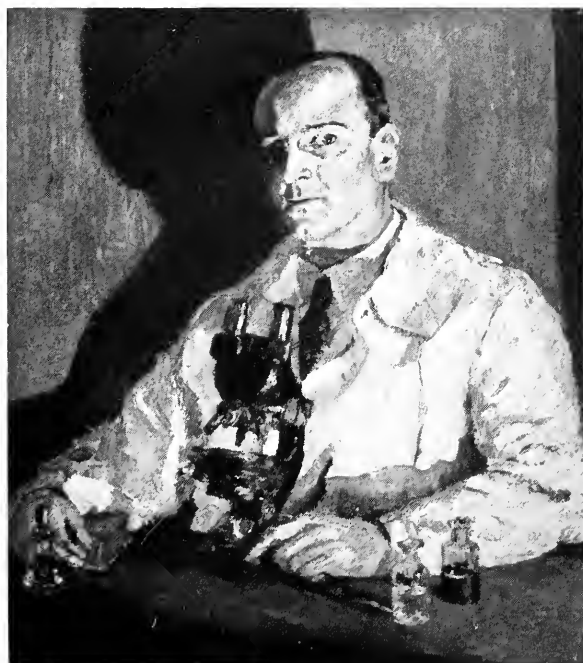
Courtesy of the National Museum of Fine Arts, Buenos Aires.

"HORSES," BY FERNANDO FADER (ARGENTINA).



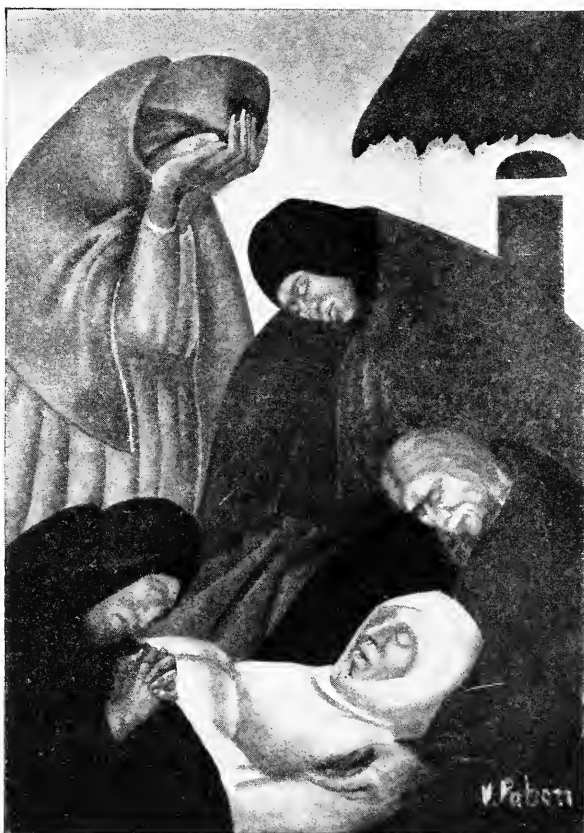
Courtesy of the National Museum of Fine Arts, Buenos Aires.

"MISSY MARIQUITA," BY EMILIO CENTURIÓN (ARGENTINA).



Courtesy of the National Museum of Fine Arts, Buenos Aires.

PORTRAIT OF DR.
ROJAS, BY JORGE
BERISTAYN (AR-
GENTINA).



"THE INTERMENT,"
BY VICTOR PABÓN
(BOLIVIA).

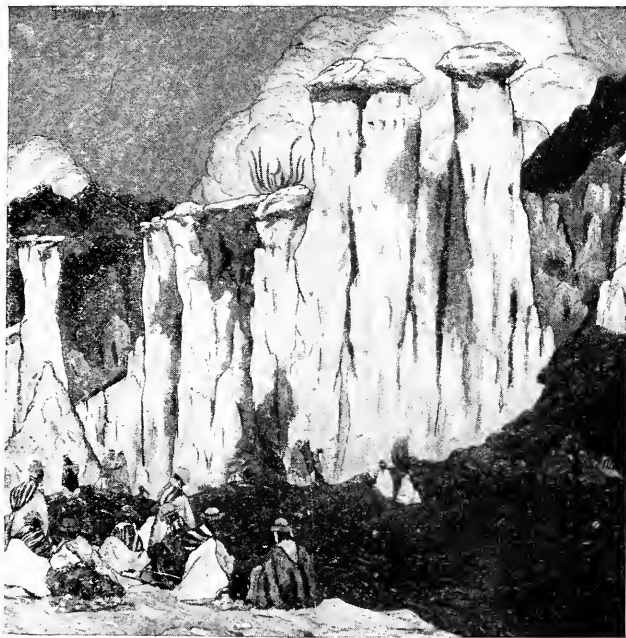
Photograph by Schindéle.

"STRONGER THAN
EARTH," BY CECILIO
GUZMÁN DE ROJAS
(BOLIVIA).



Courtesy of the Bolivian National Academy of Fine Arts.

"ROCK FORMATIONS," BY
CECILIO GUZ-
MÁN DE ROJAS
(BOLIVIA).



Courtesy of the Bolivian National Academy of Fine Arts.



Courtesy of the Courvoisier Galleries. Collection of Mrs. John S. Wood.

"PREPARATIONS FOR A CEREMONIAL DANCE," A WATER COLOR BY ANTONIO
SOTOMAYOR (BOLIVIA).



"STUDY OF A HEAD," BY AL-
BERTO DE VEIGA GUIGNARD
(BRAZIL).



"LITTLE MOTHER," BY
OLGA-MARY PEDROZA
(BRAZIL).

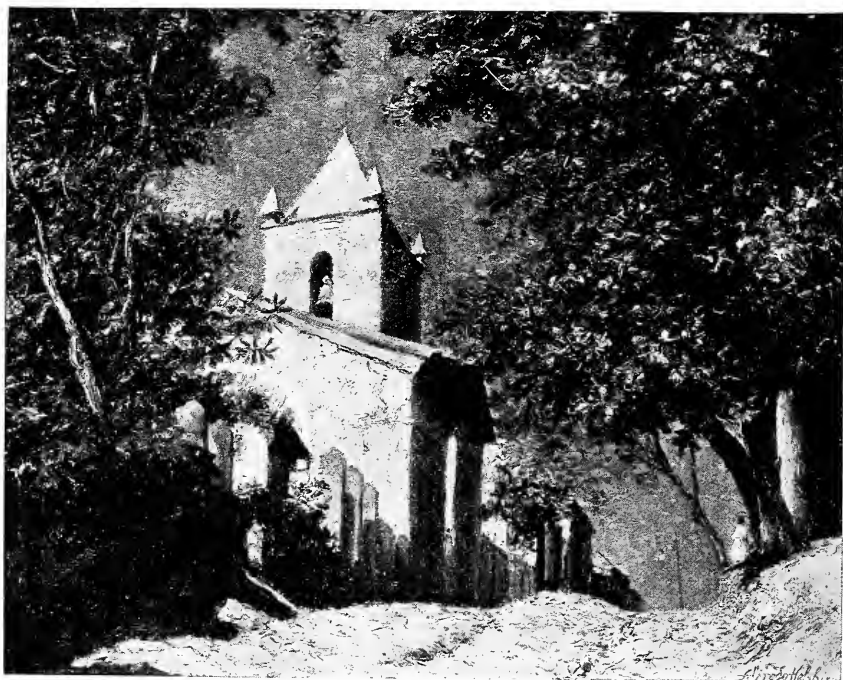


"RELIGIOUS FESTIVAL IN THE COUNTRY," BY GEORGINA DE ALBUQUERQUE (BRAZIL).



"OLD CHURCH," BY REGINA VEIGA (BRAZIL).

Photograph by Schindéle.



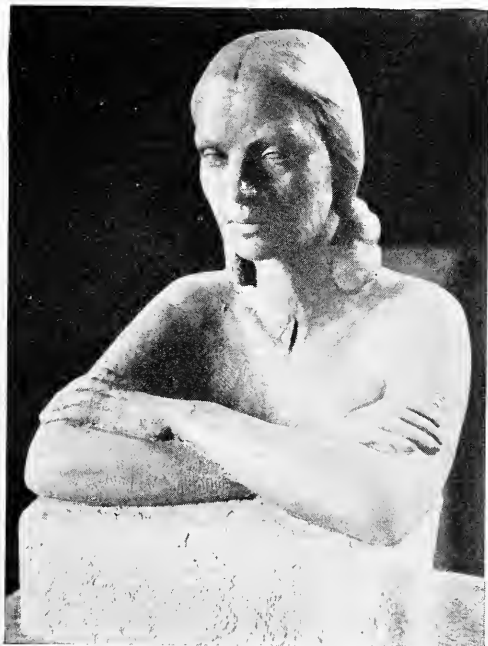
"OLD CONVENT," BY
ALFREDO HELSBY
(CHILE).



"STUDY OF A HEAD," BY
NICANOR GONZÁLEZ
MÉNDEZ (CHILE).

Courtesy of Eduardo Neale-Silva.

SCULPTURE BY MARÍA BELLET
(CHILE).



Courtesy of Eduardo Neale-Silva.



Courtesy of Eduardo Neale-Silva.

JOSÉ TORIBIO MEDINA, BY RO-
MÁN ROJAS (CHILE).



PORTRAIT OF THE WRITER
 LUIS ENRIQUE OSORIO. BY
 ROBERTO PIZANO (COLOM-
 BIA).

Courtesy of Luis López de Mesa.



PORTRAIT OF SEÑO-
 RITA GLADYS KOP-
 PEL. BY RICARDO
 ACEVEDO (COLOM-
 BIA).

Courtesy of Luis López de Mesa.



From "Cromos."

"TROPICAL FOREST," ETCHING BY OSCAR RODRÍGUEZ NARANJO (COLOMBIA).



Courtesy of the School of Fine Arts, Costa Rica.

"LANDSCAPE," BY EZEQUIEL
JIMÉNEZ (COSTA RICA).



Courtesy of the School of Fine Arts, Costa Rica.

"HOW MUCH HAVE I MADE?"
BY RIGOBERTO MOYA
(COSTA RICA).



Courtesy of the School of Fine Arts, Costa Rica.

"IN THE VICINITY OF SAN JOSÉ," BY CONSUELO GAMBOA (COSTA RICA).



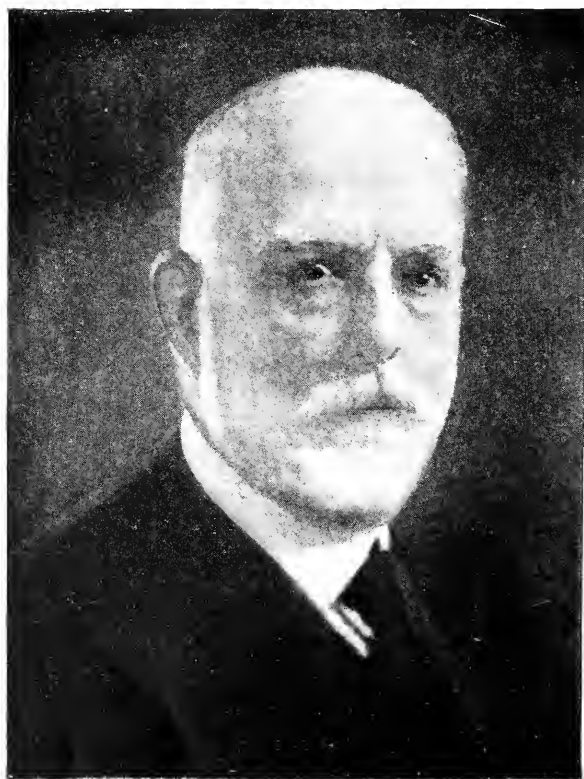
Courtesy of the School of Fine Arts, Costa Rica.

"NEAR SAN JOSÉ," BY LOLITA DE PERALTA (COSTA RICA).



Collection of Laureano López, Habana.

"DAWN," BY AN-
TONIO RODRÍGUEZ
MOREY (CUBA).



PORTRAIT OF THE
ARTIST, BY SEBAS-
TIAN GELABERT
(CUBA).

PORTRAIT OF THE
ARTIST MIGUEL
HEVIA. BY E. G.
OLIVERA (CUBA).



Courtesy of the National Academy of Arts, Habana.

"A GAME OF
CARDS," BY MA-
NUEL VEGA Y
LÓPEZ (CUBA).



Courtesy of the National Academy of Arts and Letters, Habana.



Photograph by Schindler.

"INDIAN PIPER," BY VÍCTOR
MIDEROS (ECUADOR).



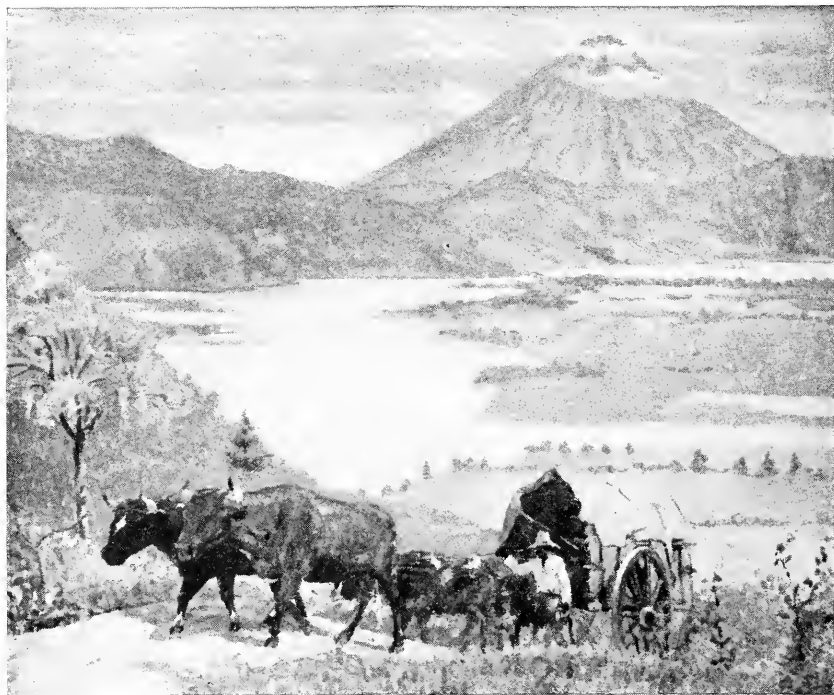
"THE LITTLE CHURCH, QUITO,"
BY VÍCTOR MIDEROS (ECUA-
DOR).



"A PEACEFUL CORNER," BY E. MARTÍNEZ SERRANO (ECUADOR).



"ANDEAN VILLAGE," BY JOSÉ A. YEPES (ECUADOR).



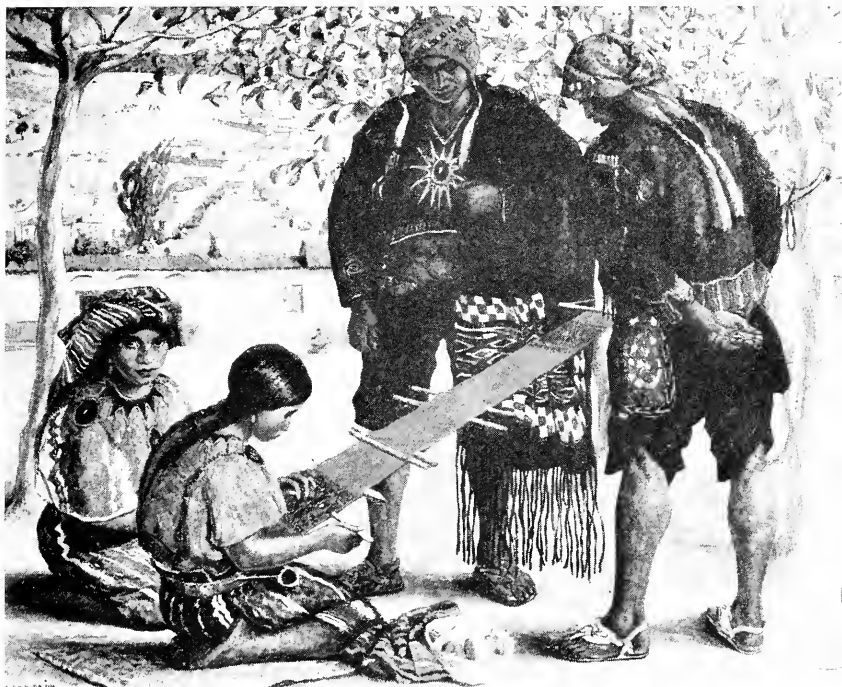
Courtesy of the Guatemalan National Academy of Fine Arts.

"LAKE AMATITLÁN," BY ANTONIO TEXEDA FONSECA (GUATEMALA).



"DETAIL OF CERRO DEL CARMEN," ETCHING BY F. W. SCHAEFFER (GUATEMALA).

Courtesy of the Guatemalan National Academy of Fine Arts.



Courtesy of the National Academy of Fine Arts of Guatemala.

"THE WEAVERS," BY HUMBERTO GARAVITO (GUATEMALA).



Courtesy of the National Academy of Fine Arts of Guatemala.

"MARKET," BY ANTONIO TEXEDA FONSECA (GUATEMALA).



Photograph by Beatrice Newhall.

DETAIL OF MURAL IN THE NATIONAL PALACE, MEXICO CITY, BY DIEGO RIVERA
(MEXICO).



Courtesy of the Department of Education.

"VILLAGE OF IXMIQUILPÁN," PASTEL BY AGUSTÍN VELÁZQUEZ CHÁVEZ (MEXICO).



Courtesy of the Department of Education.

"BOY IN THE WATER," TEMPERA BY MÁXIMO PACHECO (MEXICO).



Courtesy of Ricardo J. Alfaro.

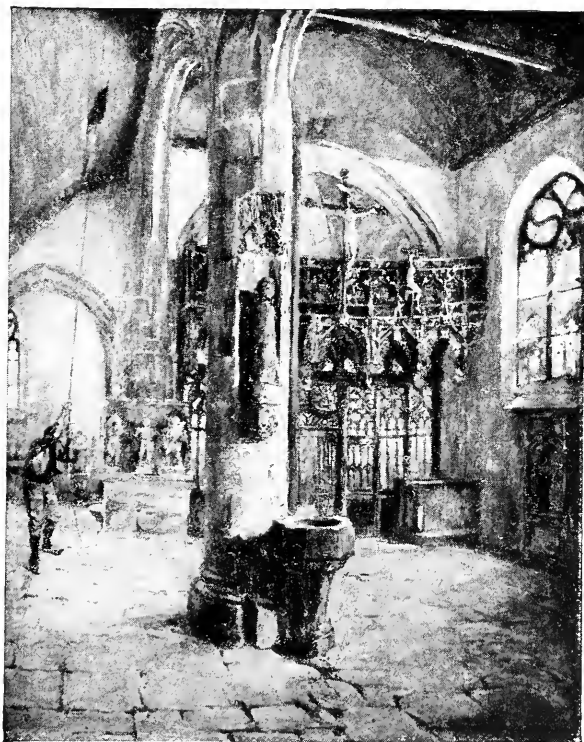
"THE REPUBLIC OF PANAMA
RECEIVES THE HOMAGE OF
NATIONS AND RACES,"
(MURAL IN THE PRESIDEN-
TIAL PALACE) BY ROBERTO
LEWIS (PANAMA).



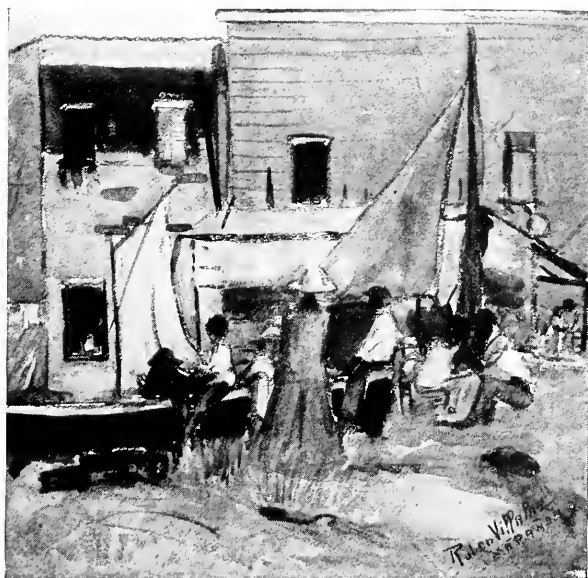
"THE LAUGHING MAN," BY
ROBERTO LEWIS (PANAMA).

Courtesy of Ricardo J. Alfaro.

"INTERIOR OF OLD
CHURCH IN FA-
OÛET, BRITTANY,"
BY ROBERTO LEWIS
(PANAMA).

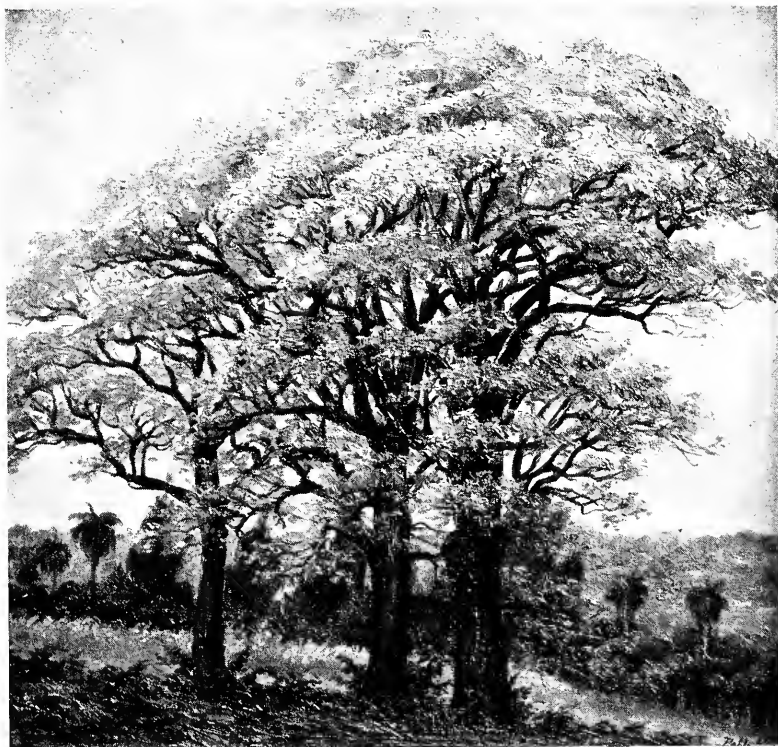


Courtesy of Ricardo J. Alfaro.



"GROUP AT MARA-
NÓN," WATER
COLOR BY RUBÉN
VILLALAZ (PANA-
MA).

Courtesy of Ricardo J. Alfaro.



Courtesy of the artist.

PAINTING BY PABLO ALBORNO (PARAGUAY).



Courtesy of Pablo Albornoz.

"THE TWO SENTINELS," BY JUAN SAMUDIO (PARAGUAY).



Courtesy of Pablo Alborn.

"CORNER OF GARDEN," BY JAIME BESTARD (PARAGUAY).



Courtesy of the artist.

"ÑANDUTÍ LACE WEAVERS," BY PABLO ALBORNO (PARAGUAY).



Courtesy of the National School of Fine Arts, Lima.

"A FESTIVAL," BY
JOSÉ SABOGAL
(PERU).



PORTRAIT OF
SEÑOR M. GUTIÉR-
REZ, BY J. GUTIÉ-
RREZ T. (PERU).

Courtesy of the National School of Fine Arts, Lima.

"THRESHING," (CA-
JAMARCA, PERU)
BY CAMILO BLAS
(PERU).



Courtesy of the National School of Fine Arts, Lima.



"SPINNER OF HUANO-
QUILLO" (TARMA),
BY RICARDO E.
FLÓREZ (PERU).

Courtesy of the National School of Fine Arts, Lima.



Property of the Banco de Seguros del Estado, Uruguay.

"ON THE SANTA LUCÍA," BY ERNESTO LAROCHE (URUGUAY)



PORTRAIT OF THE PAINTER CARLOS CRUZ, BY DOMINGO BAZZURRO (URUGUAY).

Courtesy of the National Museum of Fine Arts, Montevideo.

"SAPPHO," BY ANTONIO PENA (URUGUAY).



Courtesy of the National Museum of Fine Arts, Montevideo.



"SERENITY," BY Y. D'ANIELLO (URUGUAY).

Courtesy of the National Museum of Fine Arts, Montevideo.



"BEATRICE", BY CRISTÓBAL ROJAS (VENEZUELA).



"THE MARRIAGE OF BOLÍVAR," BY TITO SALAS (VENEZUELA)



"THE NUNS," BY
PABLO ZELAYA
SIERRA (HON-
DURAS).



"BEGGAR," BY CARLOS ZÚÑIGA
FIGUEROA (HONDURAS).

Courtesy of the artist.



Courtesy of Henri De Bayle.

"WILL YOU BUY MY FRUIT?" PHOTOGRAPH BY J. M. QUESADA (NICARAGUA).



Courtesy of Henri De Bayle.

"INDIAN KITCHEN," PHOTOGRAPH BY J. M. QUESADA (NICARAGUA).

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES ON SOME LATIN AMERICAN ARTISTS WHOSE WORKS ARE REPRODUCED IN THIS ISSUE

RICARDO ACEVEDO BERNAL (Colombia).

Born in Bogotá on May 4, 1867, Ricardo Acevedo Bernal went to New York in 1890 and remained there for five years painting portraits. On his return to Colombia he laid the foundation for his artistic reputation with his painting *Triunfo de la Virgen del Carmen*, which won the first prize in the National Exhibition of 1899. Other notable works from his brush include *El Bautismo de Cristo*, now hanging in the cathedral in Bogotá, *La Sagrada Familia*, and *El Evangelista San Marcos*—in the dome of the cathedral—which is considered the artist's masterpiece.

PABLO ALBORNO (Paraguay).

Pablo Alborno is director of the Ateneo Paraguayo in Asunción, Paraguay. He was represented in the First Baltimore Pan American Exhibition of Contemporary Paintings (1931) by four paintings, one of which, "Lapacho Tree in Bloom", was especially admired. Señor Alborno not only is a distinguished landscape painter, but is also noted as an archaeologist and anthropologist.

JUAN D'ANIELLO (Uruguay).

Juan d'Aniello was born in Mígues, in the Department of Canelones. He left Uruguay when sixteen years of age to study at the Royal Institute of Fine Arts in Naples. Later he was a pupil of the great sculptor Vicente Gemito. On his return to Montevideo he held several exhibitions of drawings which were unanimously praised by the critics.

When he went back to Europe he settled in Barcelona and devoted himself exclusively to sculpture. He has exhibited in Barcelona, Madrid, Rome, and Naples, often by special invitation. Two of his works that attracted much attention were *Maruja*, the bust of a child, and *Lobo de Mar*, the head of an old fisherman. Busts and monuments executed by him are to be found not only in Montevideo but also in many other South American and European capitals.

JAIME BESTARD (Paraguay).

Jaime Bestard studied in his native country and in Paris. Last July, at the time of his first exhibition in Argentina, *La Nación* of Buenos Aires said, "The name of Jaime Bestard is new to us. His natural language is that of colorful imagery. He has the simple timidity of a child, and a child's delightful curiosity, full of feeling. He tries to give us the impression of the moment, as in *Rincón de jardín*, *El Barranco*, or *Tataré*. There are two ways of 'composing' a landscape: one consists in changing its natural arrangement; the other, in submitting its elements to a certain purely emotional stylization. In the first case the landscape ceases to be descriptive; in the second it is important as a state of mind and becomes expressive. Bestard goes from one to the other, and in both cases he succeeds in giving us authentic testimony—that of his own personality."

DOMINGO BAZZURRO (Uruguay).

Domingo Bazzurro (1886-) began his art studies in 1905, under C. del Mónaco, and the following year crossed the Río de la Plata to work in the studio of Eduardo Sívori, in Buenos Aires. On his return to Montevideo, he was appointed professor in the Círculo Fomento de Bellas Artes. In 1912 he went to Europe, traveling in Italy, France, and Spain. An exhibition of his work

held in Montevideo five years later was very successful, but his stay in his native land was brief and he returned to Paris, his headquarters ever since. Bazzurro has been particularly successful as a landscape and a portrait painter.

CAMILO BLAS (Peru).

Camilo Blas was one of the first to be influenced by the new Peruvian painting introduced by José Sabogal; he developed with, but did not imitate, the master. To a wise and penetrating observation he adds a mischievous humor, yet his paintings are not without a certain poetic emotion.

RICARDO FLÓREZ (Peru).

The outstanding characteristic of Ricardo Flórez, noted especially for his landscapes, is the luminosity of color, characteristic of French impressionism, which he is able to convey by his canvases. His success is due to his sensitiveness as a colorist, increased by the freshness of spirit and the sense of purity which the rural landscape, full of peace and fragrance, contributes to his painting.

HUMBERTO GARAVITO (Guatemala).

The artist who painted the charming picture "The Weavers" is director of the School of Fine Arts, an official institution in Guatemala City. This was one of the two paintings representing Guatemala in the First Baltimore Pan American Exhibition of Contemporary Paintings in 1931.

SEBASTIÁN GELABERT Y FERRER (Cuba).

Sebastián Gelabert y Ferrer was born in Habana in 1863, and studied at the School of San Alejandro under Miguel Melero. Later he taught drawing at the school for five years.

His paintings of historical events and of local color, as well as his landscapes and still life compositions, won favor from the critics, but it is as a portrait painter that he is best known. His *Self-Portrait* here reproduced is a recent work hanging in the Hispanic Society Museum in New York.

Circumstances made it impossible for him to devote himself entirely to art, and he showed equal ability in the realm of finance. For some time he was Managing Director of the Banco de la Habana and in 1921 he was Chairman of the Cuban Commercial Mission to the United States. He was also at one time Secretary of the Treasury. Yet in spite of these activities, he was able to give time to his painting.

At present he is president of the Section of Painting of the National Academy of Arts and Letters of Cuba.

NICANOR GONZÁLEZ MÉNDEZ (Chile).

Nicanor González Méndez, who was born in 1864 at Talca, entered the School of Fine Arts in Santiago in 1879. His painting *Los Primeros Surcos* won for him in 1887 the General Maturana prize, which enabled him to live for five years in Europe, where he studied in France and Italy. He returned to Chile in 1894, and his work was received with acclaim. Since the end of the century he has devoted himself to teaching, both in his own studio and in art schools in Santiago. A canvas from his brush received honorable mention at the World's Fair at Buffalo in 1901.

CECILIO GUZMÁN DE ROJAS (Bolivia).

A native of Potosí, Cecilio Guzmán de Rojas held his first exhibition there in 1920. The following year he went to Europe, studying in Spain and Paris; in 1924 he received one of the fellowships offered by the Spanish Government for Hispano-American students. To him was entrusted the decoration of the Bolivian Pavilion at the Ibero-American Exposition held in 1929 at Seville. In many of his works his delight in symbolic fantasy is apparent; his portraits

are notable for their line and color. Guzmán de Rojas has also done distinguished etchings and is at present Director of the National School of Fine Arts.

ALFRED HELSBY (Chile).

Alfred Helsby was introduced to artistic circles of the United States in the season of 1914-15, when he exhibited in New York, Boston, and Washington. This Chilean artist, of British parentage, began his studies in Valparaíso, where he numbered among his masters Thomas Somerscales, Juan Francisco Gonzales, and Alfredo Valenzuela Puelma. An exhibition of his Chilean landscapes at the Madrid Salon in 1895 was favorably received, and he later exhibited in Santiago (Chile), London, Manchester, and Liverpool with great success. In describing the New York exhibit, the Brooklyn Daily Eagle said, "The works are so sunny and atmospheric and so emphatically filled with color that one might be pardoned for doubting that such landscape effects are true to life. And yet they doubtless are true transcripts of a mountainous region a few miles from Santiago. Not only vividness of color, but variety in picturesque subjects are noted in the collection. And when the fine skill of Mr. Helsby in interpreting times and seasons, moods of a day, or the efflorescent vegetation of a subtropical region are taken into account the collection, with its sunshine and air, becomes a joy to behold."

ERNESTO LAROCHE (Uruguay).

Ernesto Laroche, well known in Latin America as a painter and etcher, was born in Montevideo March 8, 1879. Although he began his studies in 1893, in the studio of Federico Renom, the first recognition of his abilities by the critics came in 1908. His works are to be found in the principal galleries and collections on both sides of the Río de la Plata. The National Museum of Fine Arts in Montevideo possesses two of his best paintings, *La Canción del Silencio* and *La Cumbre del Cerro Arisco*, as well as many of his etchings. Public buildings both in the capital and in other parts of the country also have examples of his work on their walls.

Laroche has exhibited in many national and foreign expositions. He was commissioned by his Government to help organize the artistic section of the Historical Museum, and was a member of the Committee on Plastic Arts of the *Casa del Arte*. Besides serving on the juries of various official exhibitions, he is an honorary member of the *Círculo de Bellas Artes* of Montevideo. He has taught drawing in the university. From 1911 to 1921 he was secretary of the National Museum of Fine Arts and from 1921 to 1927 the assistant director; since 1928 he has been its director.

VÍCTOR MIDEROS (Ecuador).

Víctor Mideros is known especially as a painter of mystically religious subjects, yet his genius is not confined to such themes. As a portrait painter his delineation of character is shrewd and sure, his scenes of Indian life are free from sentimentality, and his landscapes give a sense of the rarefied mountain atmosphere. Of his work the Ecuadorean critic José Rumazo González has written: "To Mideros, color is form without limits, and line, the internal limit of form; yet his technique of line is sculptural, carved from the outside in, although it is from within that the form is emerging." He is the director of the National School of Fine Arts and has recently done a series of religious paintings for one of the Quito churches.

EUGENIO OLIVERA (Cuba).

Eugenio Olivera was born in Habana in 1874, and began his art studies at the School of San Alejandro there, under Leopoldo Romañach. The Provincial Government granted him a fellowship to study abroad; in Madrid he attended the School of San Fernando and also studied at the studio of Cecilio Plá. After a

visit to Italy, he was appointed professor of the National School of Painting in Spain, where he taught for many years. In 1925 he returned to Cuba, to teach in the School of San Alejandro. Olivera has exhibited successfully in many exhibitions, including the Ibero-American Exposition of Seville, in 1929.

MÁXIMO PACHECO (Mexico).

Although Máximo Pacheco is not yet thirty years old, he has spent more than half his life painting. After a few months' instruction in the National Academy of Fine Arts, he acted as helper to his instructor, Fermín Revueltas, in the painting of the National Preparatory School. Then followed two years with Diego Rivera, who was working on the frescoes in the Department of Education. Pacheco's work became known after a successful exhibition in Mexico City, and as the result of his frescoes in a new school in one of the poorer quarters of the capital. Much of his painting was autobiographical, and he even used himself as a model for much of his early work. One of his paintings was hung in the Pan American Exposition in San Francisco, where it was much commented upon. He is considered one of the outstanding artists of the younger generation in Mexico.

ANTONIO PENA (Uruguay).

Antonio Pena was born in 1894 in Montevideo, where he began his art studies. He has traveled widely in Europe, one of his trips having been won as a fellowship. In Vienna he studied with the sculptor Anton Hanak, who considered him one of his most promising pupils; later, in Paris, he worked at the studio of Antoine Bourdelle.

He has exhibited at the Autumn Salon in Paris, at the Retiro Salon and in the gallery of the *Amigos del Arte* in Buenos Aires, and in several galleries in Montevideo. In 1930 he won the second prize for sculpture at the Uruguayan Centenary Exposition.

ROBERTO PIZANO (Colombia).

This well known Colombian painter, who died in Bogotá in 1929, earned his first reputation in 1914 for his copies of masterpieces. In 1918 he went to Spain to study at the School of San Fernando, where he completed the four years' course in three years. There his masters included such famous artists as Joaquín Sorolla y Bastida, José Moreno Carbonero, Luis Menéndez Pidal, Julio Romero de Torres, and Cecilio Plá. His studies in Madrid were followed by travel in France and Italy, and he came especially under the influence of Anders Zorn. After a brief visit to America, he returned to Europe in 1923; in Madrid he worked in the studio of the director of the Prado Museum, Don Fernando Alvarez de Sotomayor, and in Paris in various studios and academies. His portraits, both drawings and paintings, reveal both technical skill and penetrating insight.

FRANCISCO M. QUESADA (Nicaragua).

Francisco M. Quesada has won an international reputation for his artistic photography, in which he has specialized for thirty years. He studied under Nicholas Boris of Cincinnati, and his pictures have been favorably received in the United States and Europe, as well as in Nicaragua.

BENITO QUINQUELA MARTÍN (Argentina).

It has been said that this Argentine painter (1891-) portrays the tumultuous life of the sea and of harbors. He was taken from a foundling home by a family of Italian laborers, and as a child worked on the coal barges in the harbor. As he had no funds with which to attend art school, he taught himself, drawing in his idle moments the scenes of port life which fascinated him by their kaleidoscopic movement. He submitted works to the National Salon, arousing there the interest of a few discerning people who saw in him a strong painter scornful of conventional beauty.

Acting on a sudden decision, Quinquela Martín went to Paris, where he spent several years. His first exhibition there was a tremendous success; of it the French critic Camille Mauclair wrote, "A month ago I knew neither the name nor the work of Quinquela Martín. Now I know both, and I am strongly urged to speak of them, for two reasons: first, because Quinquela has a delightful personality, second, because his particular case brings up for study a problem of artistic culture . . . He is remarkably observant, a colorist who is both strong and delicate. His spatula painting piles up strongly opulent colors—vermilions, cobalts, emerald greens, chrome yellows—in whole tones and striking juxtaposition. It has, at the same time, a sensitive music of grays and violets."

In July 1931 the artist held his first exhibition in Argentina in the Rosa Galisteo de Rodríguez Museum in Santa Fe.

DIEGO RIVERA (Mexico).

Diego Rivera (1886–) is probably the Latin American artist best known in the United States. He began his studies in Mexico under José Guadalupe Posada; in 1907 he went to Spain to study under Eduardo Chicharro. He also studied in France, and in his paintings of that period the influence of Cézanne, Picasso, and Zuloaga is obvious.

On his return to Mexico and his identification with the Revolution, he became interested in fresco painting as a means of depicting graphically the development of a people or a civilization. His success in this medium is too well known to require comment. In Mexico he has accomplished such tremendous undertakings as the frescoes in the Secretaría de Educación and the Escuela Preparatoria, both in the capital, and in Cortés' Palace, Cuernavaca. In the United States his work spans the continent, from the Stock Exchange in San Francisco, to the Art Institute of Detroit, to the Workers' School in New York.

An opportunity to study the various stages of development through which Rivera passed before attaining his present masterly style was offered at an exhibition of his works held by the Museum of Modern Art in New York City in December 1931 and January 1932. There paintings dating from 1902 to frescoes especially done for the exhibition were shown and greatly admired.

ANTONIO RODRÍGUEZ MOREY (Cuba).

Antonio Rodríguez Morey (1874–) studied drawing at the School of San Alejandro and landscape painting in the studios of the Cuban artists Juan Ruiz and Miguel Arias.

In 1891 he went to Europe to complete his studies. In Florence he studied under the celebrated Giovanni Lessi, and learned to restore old masterpieces in the studio of the Uffizzi Gallery.

Four years later he went to Rome, where he studied with Italian and Spanish masters. At the International Exhibition held there in 1900 he won the second prize for his landscape *Otoño*. He has also exhibited in Florence, Milan, Turin, Palermo, Nice, Genoa, Munich, Vienna, Paris, New York, and Los Angeles, and won many gold medals and other prizes. Among the positions he has held and honors received are: Member of the Cuban Academy of Arts and Letters; corresponding member of the San Fernando Academy of Fine Arts, Madrid; member of the Watercolorists Association, Rome; President of the Círculo de Bellas Artes, Habana; President of the Association of Painters and Sculptors, Habana; and founder and vice president of the Section of Painting of the Association of American Artists.

He has specialized in landscape, a genre in which he has won great praise, being called by the critics the poet painter of the Cuban fields.

CRISTÓBAL ROJAS (Venezuela).

Among Venezuelan painters of the last century, Cristóbal Rojas was the most remarkable, a man of extraordinary ability, originality, force, and brilliance. He

came from an aristocratic but very poor family, and as a boy was taught to be a cigarmaker. But he spent his spare time drawing, and evidence of his genius must have been apparent, for Herrera Toro, who had been commissioned to decorate the cathedral of Caracas, entrusted some of the routine work to him. From then on Rojas devoted himself to painting.

A certain intensity of spirit in his painting reflects the tormented soul of the artist, an unhappiness that was aggravated by ill-health, for he died of tuberculosis when only thirty-five years old. Dr. J. Semprum has said of him, "Rojas is our foremost painter. The scope of his talent, his powerful technique, and especially his inexhaustible and all-inclusive inspiration which raised him above artifice and convention, proclaim him to be our great artist; and the new generation of Venezuelans are beginning to approach his pictures with greater interest and respect."

JOSÉ SABOGAL (Peru).

The present director of the National School of Fine Arts, José Sabogal (1888—), initiated and is the foremost exponent of the new school of Peruvian painting, which draws its inspiration from the national scene. Although he has traveled widely, he has never been dominated by the charm, tradition, or culture of Europe. He was in Mexico at the time the revolutionary movement of 1922 was taking shape, and came to understand the pride in the native heritage felt by such leaders as Rivera and Orozco. He therefore returned to Peru, where he interpreted the essence of the country as it had never been done before. Jorge Basadre has said of him: "But, first of all, the Peruvianism of Sabogal's art is not due to the immensity of its scope. His Peruvianism is not merely enumerative and superficial, it is essential and penetrating. It exists not only in subject but also in intrinsic value. And the fact is that, of all the attempts made 'in trying to express ourselves,' the work of Sabogal is perhaps the most successful and definitive, even taking into account what has been accomplished in literature and in music." Sabogal's directorship of the National School of Fine Arts has resulted in the training of a group of talented pupils whose work is giving new life and vigor to Peruvian painting.

TITO SALAS (Venezuela).

Among the contemporary artists of Venezuela Tito Salas (1888—) is preeminent. His genius asserted itself at an early age; he began his studies in the School of Fine Arts of Caracas, where his remarkable talent won for him a European scholarship. From triumphs in Paris he returned to Caracas in 1911 for the dedication of his *Tríptico Boliviano*, which hangs in the West Room of the Federal Palace. The composition shows Bolívar in the three great moments of his life: Vowing to liberate his country among the ruins of Rome; crossing the Andes in the campaign which ended in the victory of Boyacá; and dying in Santa Marta, disheartened by the apparent failure of his life work.

The acquisition of the House of Bolívar by the Venezuelan Government resulted in a commission for Tito Salas to decorate the walls of several rooms. The feeling for artistic unity and the ability to harmonize architectural requirements with decorative detail are added proof, if any were needed, that the artist richly deserves his high reputation.

JUAN A. SAMUDIO (Paraguay).

Juan A. Samudio, a landscape painter of great talent, studied several years in Rome, where he was sent by the Government of Paraguay. On his return to Paraguay, he established art classes in the Gimnasio Paraguayo, which were most successful. At the centenary celebration of Brazil, 1922, he won a bronze medal for one of his landscapes, and at the Centenary of Argentina, a bronze medal and a diploma of honor for *Puente Veneciano*. He has exhibited very successfully in Buenos Aires.

ANTONIO SOTOMAYOR (Bolivia).

Antonio Sotomayor was born on May 13, 1904, in the Indian town of Chulumani, Department of La Paz, and became thoroughly imbued with Indian customs, temperament, and spirit. Although at the School of Fine Arts in La Paz he acquired a knowledge of European technique, in his mature work only traces of it, in design and in composition, are to be found. He has identified himself with Bolivia, and in his paintings the people themselves, rather than an interpretation of them, appear before us.

After nine years' residence in the United States, Antonio Sotomayor held a one-man show of water colors in San Francisco late in 1932. In writing of the exhibition, Jehanne Biétry Salinger said that he had "created anew, in his water-color paintings, the very texture of Bolivia, by his presentation of Indian types and of the spirit of the Indian. . . . He feels himself one with his background."

MANUEL VEGA Y LÓPEZ (Cuba).

Born in Habana in 1892, Manuel Vega y López studied in the School of San Alejandro there. His talent was such that he won first prizes in all his classes, and he was able to continue his studies in Europe as the recipient of a fellowship from the city of Habana. At present he teaches the life class at San Alejandro.

He paints both figures and landscapes, although he prefers the former. His works hang chiefly in private collections.

ALBERTO DE VEIGA GUIGNARD (Brazil).

This talented young Brazilian artist (1896-) began his study of painting in the Academy of Fine Arts in Munich, where he was a student between 1915 and 1918. After the first exhibition of his works, in the *Glaspalast* there, he spent a year in Florence, 1925-26. Later he exhibited in the Autumn Salons, Paris, 1927 and 1928; Independents' Salon, Paris, 1929; Official Salons, Rio de Janeiro, 1929 and 1930; and the Revolutionary Salon, Rio de Janeiro, 1931.

A critic has said of him, "Trained in Paris, Germany, and Italy, he has a mixture of different racial influences blended with his keen tropical artistic sensitiveness; de Veiga Guignard is the highest exponent of modern Brazilian painting. It may also be said that every work from his brush has a double life, that of color and that of soul, and that some of his portraits have the calm and repose of masterpieces."

AGUSTÍN VELÁZQUEZ CHÁVEZ (Mexico).

This Mexican painter is connected with the Bureau of Fine Arts of the Department of Education of the Mexican Government.

PABLO ZELAYA SIERRA (Honduras).

This talented young Honduran artist, who died in Tegucigalpa in 1933, was graduated from the Normal School in 1914. Shortly thereafter he went to Costa Rica and then to Spain, where his genius was recognized and warmly acclaimed. He first exhibited in the National Exhibition in 1922, where two paintings of still life were hung. Other exhibitions in which his work was shown were the Autumn Salon of the same year, and the National Exhibitions of 1924 and 1930. Although especially known for his landscapes, his painting *Las Monjas*, here reproduced, shows his mastery of figure painting also.

CARLOS ZÚÑIGA FIGUEROA (Honduras).

A native of Tegucigalpa, Carlos Zuñiga Figueroa studied from 1905 to 1908 in the School of San Fernando in Madrid. After visiting the most important art galleries in southern Europe, he returned to his native land where he has combined his artistic work with other activities.

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THE PRESIDENTIAL PALACE, TEGUCIGALPA, HONDURAS

APRIL

1935

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

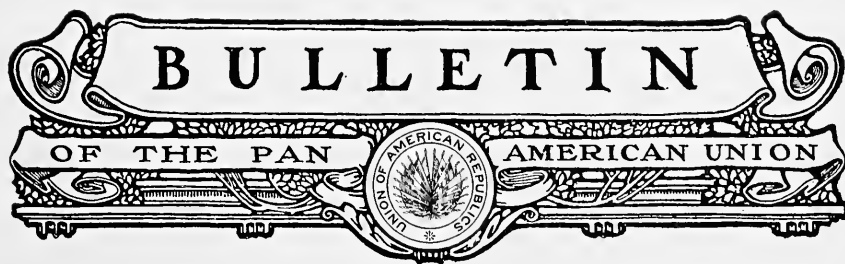
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Photograph by Harris & Ewing.

HIS EXCELLENCY DR. GUILLERMO PATTERSON Y DE JÁUREGUI, AMBASSADOR OF CUBA TO THE UNITED STATES AND MEMBER OF THE GOVERNING BOARD OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION.



Vol. LXIX

APRIL 1935

No. 4

DR. GUILLERMO PATTERSON Y DE JÁUREGUI, CUBAN AMBASSADOR TO THE UNITED STATES

ON February 6 President Roosevelt received at the White House His Excellency Dr. Guillermo Patterson y Jáuregui, who has been appointed by the Government of Cuba its Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to fill the place left by the sudden death of the late Dr. Manuel Márquez Sterling.

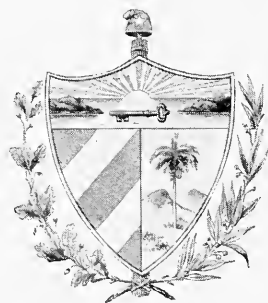
Dr. Patterson, who was born in Habana on May 20, 1868, received his formal education in his native city, graduating from the Law School of the University. He has spent much of his life abroad, in the service of his native country.

His first appointment, in August 1902, was that of consul, first class, in Liverpool; four years later he was promoted to the position of consul general in Great Britain. On August 17, 1908, he was transferred to Spain as secretary, first class; he remained there less than a year, acting also in the capacity of chargé d'affaires. From March to July 1909, he was administration chief, first class, in the Department of State of Cuba, leaving to take up the duties of consul general in Germany, with residence in Hamburg. In less than three months, however, he returned to his native land to become chief of the Division of Protocol in the Department of State. In March of the following year he was appointed Acting Assistant Secretary of State; the appointment was made definite in November 1911. In 1920 he became Assistant Secretary of State with the rank of Minister Plenipotentiary.

Dr. Patterson has also been honored by his country by appointment in the following capacities: delegate to the Assembly of the League of Nations, 1924, and chairman of the Cuban delegation, 1934; Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to Great Britain, 1925; member of the commission to draw up a treaty with the United States, 1917; representative of Cuba at the celebration of the Centenary of Independence of Venezuela, 1911, and at the inauguration of President Wilson, 1913.

Dr. Patterson is Grand Officer of the Orden del Sol of Peru and of the Orden del Mérito, Chile, and has had conferred upon him the Grand Cordon of the Orden de Honor y Mérito of Cuba, and the Collar of the Order del Libertador, second class, of Venezuela, as well as many decorations from European countries.

The diplomatic representative of Cuba is his country's delegate on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.



DR. FRANCISCO CASTILLO NÁJERA MEXICAN AMBASSADOR TO THE UNITED STATES

THE present Mexican Ambassador to the United States, Dr. Francisco Castillo Nájera, presented his letters of credence to President Roosevelt on February 20, 1935.

The new member of the diplomatic corps in Washington is known as a physician and surgeon as well as a statesman, diplomat, and author. He was born in the city of Durango on November 25, 1886, and after receiving his professional training, joined the Medical Corps of the Army. There he had wide experience in military hospitals and as chief of the sanitary service in different parts of the country, as Director of the Army Military College, professor in the Military and National Medical Schools, chief of the Sanitary Bureau of the War and Navy Department, and member of the Superior Health Council. Dr. Castillo Nájera, who now holds the rank of Surgeon General in the National Army, was also a member of the International Commission against Yellow Fever, 1921-25; delegate to the All American Conference on Venereal Diseases, Washington, 1920; delegate to the annual meeting of the American Public Health Association, 1921; chairman of the Special Committee to Study the Antituberculosis Campaign, 1924; member of the Military Commission to study various subjects in Europe, 1924-26; and member of the National Claims Commission, 1926-27.

Dr. Castillo Nájera began his diplomatic career in 1922, being appointed Minister to China, where he remained two years. In 1927 he was sent to Belgium in the same capacity, and in 1930 he was transferred to Holland, whence he went to the Court of St. James's. While in Europe he represented the Mexican Government in the Twelfth International Congress of Medical Hydrology, Climatology, and Geology; was chairman of the Mexican delegation to the medical meetings in Brussels in 1929, 1930, 1931, and 1932; a member of the Mexican delegation to the Sixth International Congress on Military Medicine and Pharmacy, The Hague, 1931; chairman of the Mexican delegation to the Ninth International Dairy Federation, Copenhagen, 1931; chairman of the Mexican delegation to the 1931 Disarmament Conference; and Mexican delegate to the Sixteenth Labor Conference in 1932.

The medal of the Mexican Military Medical Corps and the medal of the Association of Military Surgeons of the United States have been conferred upon Dr. Castillo, in addition to decorations from European countries.



Photograph by Harecourt.

HIS EXCELLENCY DR. FRANCISCO CASTILLO NÁJERA, AMBASSADOR OF MEXICO
TO THE UNITED STATES AND MEMBER OF THE GOVERNING BOARD OF THE
PAN AMERICAN UNION.

The Mexican Ambassador is a member of the Mexican Academy of Medicine; charter member of the Mexican Biological Society and of the Mexican Prophylactic Society; vice president of the Mexican Humanitarian Society; member of the American Public Health Association of the United States; member of the consultation board of the Mexican Military Medical Corps; charter member of the Mexican Medical Association; corresponding member of the Academy of Medicine of Lima; member of the Association of Military Surgeons of the United States; and member of many other foreign organizations. Among the honorary professional positions he has held are general secretary of the Second Mexican Child Congress; first secretary of the Mexican Academy of Medicine; chairman of the organizing committee of the Eighth National Medical Congress (Mexico); vice chairman of the Seventh Latin American Medical Congress, which met in Mexico in 1930; president of the First Mexican Congress of Venereal Diseases, 1924; first vice president of the Mexican Medical Association, 1922-24 and 1926-28; president of the Mexican Academy of Medicine, 1926-27, 1927-28; and officer of many European associations and congresses.

While delegate to the League of Nations, Dr. Castillo Nájera took an active interest in questions dealing with the American Republics. He was privileged to preside over one of the extraordinary assemblies of the League, and to be a member of the commissions appointed to consider the Leticia and the Chaco questions.

Besides being the author of several scientific works closely connected with his profession, he has also published *Albores*, a book of poetry, 1906; *L'Education au Mexique*, 1929; and *Un Siglo de Poesía Belga* (1830-1930), 1930.

Dr. Castillo has also become a member of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.



SPANISH COLONIAL CULTURE IN UPPER PERU¹

NOTES FOR A HISTORY OF COLONIAL ART IN BOLIVIA

By DR. ENRIQUE FINOT

Minister of Bolivia in the United States

THERE is no better means of appreciating the achievements of Spain in America than in the intellectual and artistic manifestations which are the palpable demonstration of a noble stock, of an elevated spirit, and of a unique and inimitable charm. The great Italian artist Giulio Aristide Sartorio, who a few years ago visited and studied all parts of South America, after seeing the colonial monuments wrote such impartial and authoritative opinions of those achievements that they are well worth quoting here. "As I came from Argentina," he said, "touching the Pacific coast in Chile and Peru, traveling later through the interior of the latter, Bolivia, and Ecuador, I became convinced of the existence of an American art, and I came upon unsuspected traditions of pre-historic and modern times, traditions that in the future will inspire delightful features in that art." And American art, apart from the incipient manifestations of indigenous art, is no other than Spanish art, sometimes pure, sometimes influenced by its surroundings, but always keeping the aesthetic inspiration in which it originated, as a transcript of Hispanic genius. Those artistic manifestations were not the products of chance or of the inevitable association of peninsular Spaniards, natives, and creoles. They were the result of a conception intelligently arranged and thought out, and of a methodical plan of colonization on which the majority of historians have not seen fit to fix their attention. As proof, it should be recalled that Ferdinand and Isabella had decided, after Columbus' first voyage, to send to the New World, with good wages, artisans of all kinds "with the tools of their trades and everything necessary to build a city in foreign regions."

A task conducive to "strengthening Hispano-American unity" is that of making known the cultural work of Spain in America, a task in which such noble and understanding minds as that of the Ecuadorian scholar José Gabriel Navarro have been preeminent. "To try to restore her honor to calumniated Spain" is work to which all of us Hispano-Americans who are proud of our pure stock should devote ourselves. It is impossible to write and say enough to demonstrate to

¹ From an address delivered before the Instituto de las Españas, Washington Chapter, at the Spanish Embassy, Washington, D. C., October 12, 1934. The illustrations, except where otherwise credited, were supplied by the Minister of Bolivia.

the world that the odious "black legend" was in large part the invention born of political necessities in a revolutionary period, as well as the product of ignorance or of envy. But fortunately it has been true for a long time in America that Spain need not be blackened to proclaim the fame of the heroes of emancipation, nor to demonstrate the law which all these nations invoked when they declared themselves masters of their own destinies. Authorities on the subject have now shed a clear light on Spanish colonial legislation, admirable for its wise, humanitarian, and far-seeing qualities. And it is rare that now-a-days any one is unjust enough to demand from Spain, under the pretext of historical exegesis, that which no nation could have given under such conditions and at such a time; or that one should persist in the common error of claiming for the colonies what Spain did not possess even in the mother country. What more could she, the noble, the quixotic, the improvident, have given, than all that she did give generously: her blood, her tongue, her religion, and her culture—that is, her own life. A cowardly imputation, inspired by greed, is that with which some have tried to belittle the glorious enterprise of the conquest, as if economic motives were not the only ones which have determined all the great human actions in history, even those which seem most altruistic and unselfish. Just because hunger for wealth may have urged on the daring epic it did not on that account cease to be a work of the highest ideals and of fecund civilization.

The artistic and intellectual patrimony left in America would suffice in itself to ennoble Spain, if there were no other proofs of her fertile and generous action in existence. That patrimony, the fruit to a large extent of the action of religious orders, was also the result of wise and paternal governments, as well as of an adequate and farseeing legislation. The guild organization introduced in Spanish colonial America was a powerful agent in urging the development of the arts, as well as a school of good taste, of technical training, of laboriousness and discipline. The guilds were established in the Hispanic American cities as dependent groups of the church or municipal authorities. Until not many years ago there could be seen in some southern cities of the continent workshops and guilds organized in the colonial manner, keeping the deepest attachment and respect for traditional standards, even after these had been abolished and replaced by laws inspired by the breath of liberty, which only served to determine the decadence of the arts.

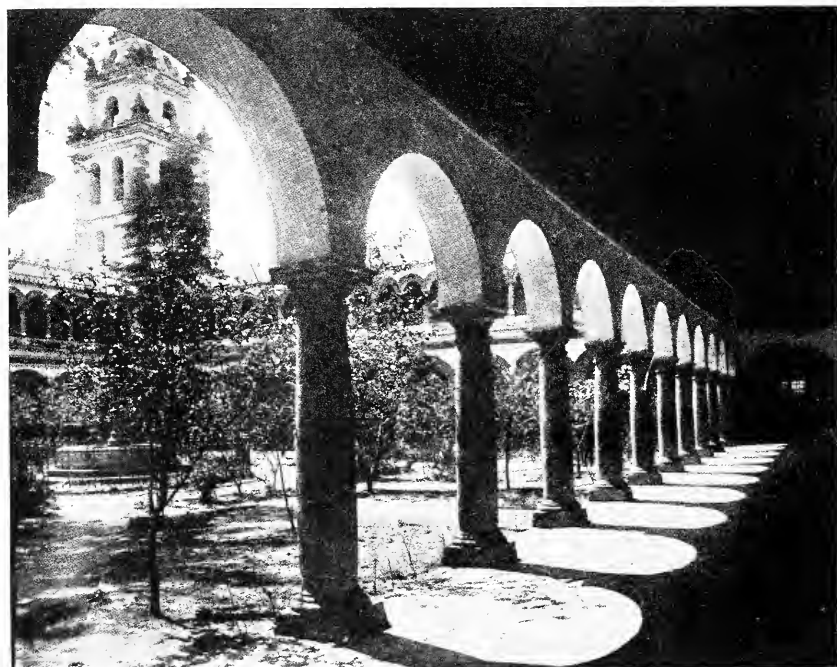
If the exercise of the artistic professions during the colonial period was established on such foundations, how much there was which must have flourished in the exuberant and admirable form to which the treasures of art still existing in different parts of America, especially in Mexico, Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia bear witness, in spite of



Photograph by I. F. Scheeler.

THE CATHEDRAL, SUCRE.

The monumental tower is particularly notable.



CLOISTER OF THE ROYAL AND PONTIFICAL UNIVERSITY OF SAN FRANCISCO XAVIER, SUCRE.

This ancient university, founded in 1624, was attended in colonial times by students from far and wide, among them being many leaders of independence. Sucre was formerly known as Chuquisaca.

the inroads made by the exploitation of foreign collectors or dealers in antiques, only too well served by the ignorance, indifference, or greed of present generations. Special laws, putting an end to the export of antique works of art, have been necessary in almost all those countries to protect a wealth which was in danger of disappearing from its native land, and to avoid a despoiling which also had included the valuable archaeological remains of the pre-Columbian epoch.

I

The history of the colonial culture of Upper Peru, today Bolivia, still remains to be written, since only certain isolated and incomplete occasional studies and brief monographs dealing with that subject have appeared, and they give but a sketchy and partial account of this very interesting subject. Nevertheless, there are few people in Europe or in America who have never heard of the colonial splendor of Upper Peru, the region of legendary Potosí, that emporium of riches unequaled in ancient or modern times. It is logical to take it for granted that the lands which produced the most fabulous wealth of America under Spanish rule also reached during the so-called colonial period, through the workings of the economic factors which move and transform everything, a social development consistent with the economic, and left evidences which have come down to posterity as proof of that might. My subject, then, is Spanish colonial culture in Upper Peru, now Bolivia, a theme dear to my heart and, I hope, of interest to the reader.

It would be impossible to discuss the Upper Peruvian colonial period without referring to the splendid past of Potosí, the famous *Villa Imperial* of Charles V, founded in the middle of the sixteenth century as a result of the discovery of the hill of that name, the richest silver deposit in the whole world. Thanks to the number of people who flocked there from Spain and from other places in America, Potosí was transformed in a few years into the most important and populous city on the continent. Within a very short time the principal religious orders were established within its walls and had started to build sumptuous churches and monasteries. At the same time, the exploitation of the mines made it necessary to build great special structures to receive, coin, and handle the royal revenue which, according to authentic and approved statistics, totaled during the colonial period the enormous sum of 3,200,000,000 *pesos fuertes*; this amount represented only the fifth part of the silver extracted and refined, the share belonging to the Crown. Thus there arose from nothing the *Casa Real de Moneda* (Royal Mint), the *Banco de Rescates* (Exchange Bank), and the *Cajas Reales* (Royal Coffers), besides private palaces and manorial houses, with facades boasting coats of arms, where many titled Castilian families and not a few gentlemen ennobled by the incontrovertible power of wealth made their homes.



THE TOWER OF LA COMPAÑÍA, POTOSÍ.

Rising behind this delicate colonial monument is the famous silver mountain whence came the means for outfitting the Invincible Armada.

The coat of arms granted by the Emperor to Potosí bore the following legend: "I am rich Potosí, the treasure of the world, the king of mountains, and the envy of kings." This was changed by Viceroy Toledo to the Latin motto: *Pro Caesaris potentia, pro regis prudentia iste excelsus mons et argenteus orbem debellare valet universum*. Philip II gave to Potosí, whose wealth outfitted the Invincible Armada, the standard borne by Don Juan of Austria at Lepanto, as well as the banner of Castile which Columbus carried when he landed in the New World. Such examples of the royal favor are more than enough to testify to the high esteem in which the Imperial City was held by the Crown.

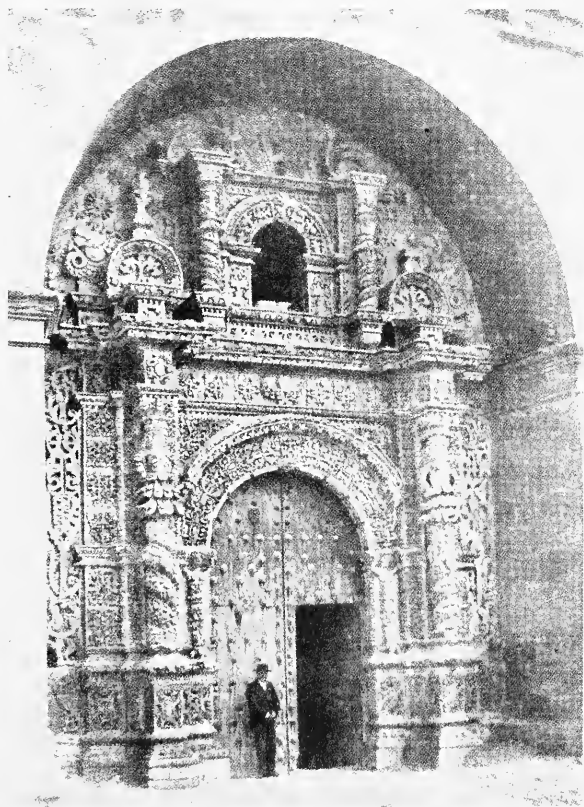
The history of the cities of colonial Upper Peru was not that of so many mining towns which flourished for a day, with ephemeral splendor, to decay later and disappear without a trace amid the last flashes of a temporary and mismanaged prosperity. The miracle of Spanish colonization was that here it left stable and industrious civil centers and permanent traces of an imperishable cultural accomplishment.

While streams of silver were pouring from Potosí, from borings into the prolific bowels of the earth, the official capital of Upper Peru was being built a short distance away, in cultured Chuquisaca [now Sucre], the seat of the Royal Audience of Charcas, the Archbishopric, and

the Presidency and Captaincy General of those extensive provinces. At the beginning of the seventeenth century the Royal and Pontifical University of San Francisco Xavier was established in Chuquisaca, with the same honors and privileges as that of Salamanca. In the eighteenth century Alcedo described that city in his *Diccionario geográfico-histórico de las Indias Occidentales*, as "the residence of noble families, belonging to the oldest and most aristocratic of Peru", and the center of an active intellectual life, which found expression in the university cloisters, in secondary schools (San Cristóbal,

FACADE OF SAN,
LORENZO, POTOSÍ.

This church, while mainly churrigueresque in style, also combines mozarabic and indigenous decorative motives.



founded in 1621 by the Prince of Esquilache, and San Juan Bautista, or the Blue School) and in the renowned Academia Carolina, a center for budding lawyers and the forge of free thought where the revolutionary spark was struck at the beginning of the nineteenth century. "The sacred academy of a large number of youths from distant climes," was the phrase used by a famous writer to describe colonial Chuquisaca. "Its annals," he added, "form a bright and colorful page in the history of the Hispanic period in the two southern viceroyalties of which it was successively the second most important city.

To its university flocked youths from all parts of the southern provinces, especially from Buenos Aires, since the only colonial university in Argentina, that of Córdoba del Tucumán, then had no law school. It is generally known, for example, that many of the leaders in the independence movement of the Río de la Plata, such as Saavedra, Moreno, Monteagudo, and Castelli, some of them born in Upper Peru, were products of scholarly Charcas; they were trained in a period when ideas were undergoing a radical change, when the doctors of Chuquisaca, "tired of syllogisms" and with their minds upset by the prevailing philosophical currents, rose up against scholasticism, showing by their boldness that the atmosphere of the university was not too narrow-minded or bigoted to prevent the heretical doctrines of the French Revolution from taking root there.

It was in Chuquisaca at the end of the eighteenth century, that one of its doctors, an official of the Royal Audience, voiced the severest possible criticism against the deficiencies of public education, in both Spain and in America; and not only did that criticism not scandalize the civil and ecclesiastical authorities, but Archbishop Moxó y Francolí himself, a man of much learning and great brilliance, welcomed it with a benevolence bordering on enthusiasm. The teaching of that period was attacked as being limited to Aristotelian philosophy, Roman and canon law, theology, and peripatetic medicine; but it could not have been so very pernicious when it permitted the training of free and modern spirits, full of a keen critical sense, capable of demanding that their own weaknesses be corrected, opening the way for positivist trends. It should be remembered in this connection that, before reading the Encyclopaedists, the youth of Upper Peru had through their training become thoroughly familiar with St. Thomas Aquinas whose political doctrines were more than enough to open their eyes to the rights of popular sovereignty, then so highly considered.

The fruits of that cultural atmosphere were, of course, the Upper Peruvian literary and scientific productions; these were not as rare or as insignificant as might be thought, considering how little contact those distant lands had with the rest of the world. That Bolivia "has no independent colonial history, not even a literary tradition," as Menéndez y Pelayo once said, is a half-truth which requires analysis. It is true that Upper Peru belonged at one time to the Viceroyalty of Lima and later, for a very short while, to that of Buenos Aires; but the existence of that relative dependence in administration and politics does not mean that the arts and letters which flourished in Upper Peru were not clearly and exclusively Upper Peruvian. With such a criterion, only those regions of Spanish colonial America which constituted vicerealties would have a history, and it is well known that they were very few—only four.

The writings of Upper Peruvian authors, moreover, always turned on native themes and subjects; this fact gives them a special and unmistakable flavor. As proof that they merit the attention of students, it is enough to cite Father Calancha, Bartolomé Martínez y Vela, and Fray Bernadino de Cárdenas, historians and chroniclers; Juan Sobrino,



Drawing by Amoretti.

CENTRAL DOORWAY, FACADE OF SAN FRANCISCO, LA PAZ.

Delicacy of line and treatment of architectural detail make this an outstanding example of creole workmanship.

Luis de Rivera, and Ventura Blanco Encalada, poets; Álvaro Alonso Barba, the priest of San Bernardo de Potosí, author of an *Arte de los Metales*, a scientific writer of real worth; Vicente Pazos Kanqui, humanist; and the philologist Padre Bertonio, a native of Spain, not to mention others of less importance, all of whom make up a list none the less estimable because of its brevity.

To the foregoing list should be added the names of writers of the colonial period from other lands who wrote of Upper Peru, either because they had visited it, or because they had lived there or heard of its reputation. Among the works by such authors mention should be made of the *Relación* of Sanabria, the *Grandezas del Perú y de Potosí* of Bernardo de Vega, the *Historia semifantástica de Potosí*, of Bartolomé de Dueñas, the *Historia religiosa y profana de Potosí* of

Dr. Guilléstegui, written in verse, the *Relación de las guerras civiles de Potosí* of the Augustine friar Juan de Medina, the *Historia Potosina* of Matías Méndez, and the *Crónica de Potosí* of Father Acosta, besides many references to Potosí included in the works of such chroniclers as Cieza de León and Garcilaso.

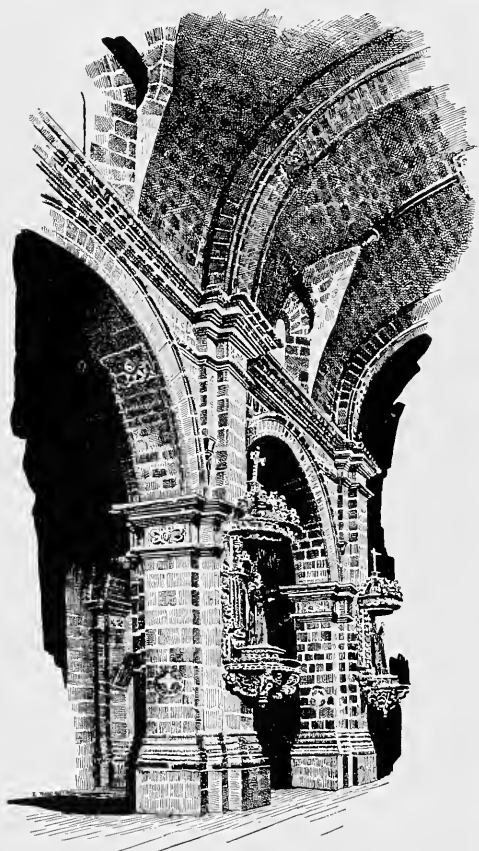
This brief sketch refers to intellectual culture; as for artistic culture, it manifested itself in so many and such varied ways that it is impossible to do more than summarize it in an arbitrary rather than thorough-going manner.

II

Beginning our study of Upper Peruvian art with that of architecture, the most permanent and complete of the plastic arts, and confining ourselves to the limited space of this outline, we must distinguish two kinds of colonial architecture: the religious,

which found expression in magnificent churches and monasteries, and that which might be called civil, represented by public buildings and palatial residences.

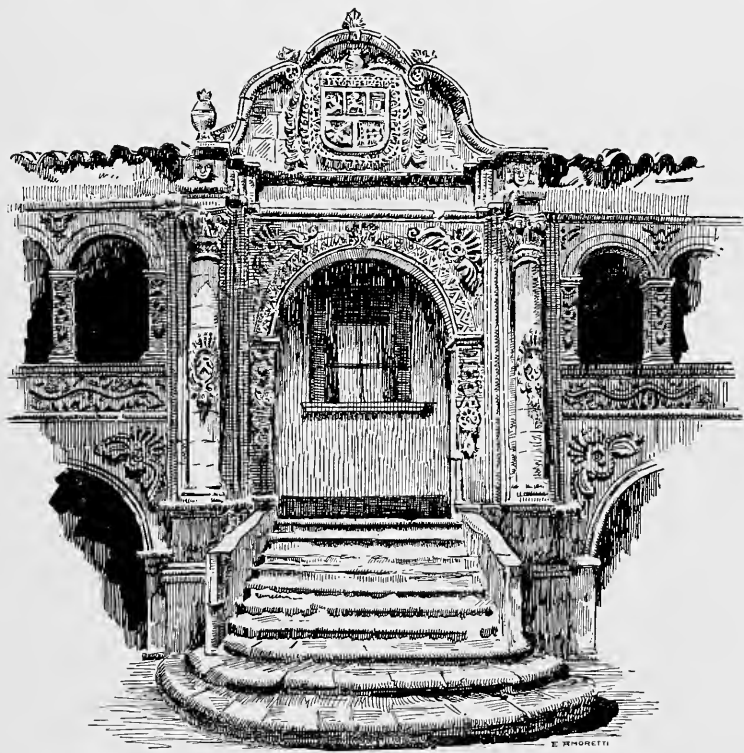
It is a well known fact that at first a great many of the churches and monasteries, erected by the generous and pious support of the faithful, were built under the direction of master architects from Spain, some of great renown; but it is also true that there was no lack of native



Drawing by Amoretti.

INTERIOR OF SAN FRANCISCO, LA PAZ, ENTIRELY BUILT OF GRANITE.

builders, who were very soon in a position to be their own masters. The influence of this last element, among whom were Indians of extraordinary ability, doubtless accounts for introducing into a more or less unadulterated Spanish style some of the absolutely typical architectural characteristics which are the hall-mark of American art. To that period belong the colonial or "pot-bellied" column, as Sartorio calls it, and the various ornamental motives which have not passed unobserved by keen and observant students.



Drawing by Amoretti.

DETAIL OF A COLONIAL PATIO, LA PAZ.

A Bolivian version of Spanish plateresque is delightfully exemplified in the house of the Marquis of Villaverde.

Unquestionably the influences and changes apparent in Spanish renaissance architecture, which at first had noble lines—consider the severe style of buildings in Burgos and Salamanca—were repeated with little difference in the colonial style of Upper Peru, as in that of other regions of America, often without order or harmony. *San Francisco*, in Potosí, is an example of the Spanish renaissance, with traces of gothic and an occasional bit of somewhat modified plateresque. *San Lorenzo* in the same city, on the other hand, is churrigueresque with a great deal of mozarabic and not a few decorative

motives from indigenous art. *San Francisco* in La Paz is typically baroque, but there also there is an abundance of extraneous influences. A distinguished art critic is correct, therefore, when he says that

"contrary to the naive desire of those who want to have a colonial building catalogued under any one of those names (isabelline, plateresque, herrerian, baroque, churrigueresque, etc.), it is often the case that the lines of a façade show very disconcerting parentage."² What seems unquestionable, however, is that the two great Spanish styles, plateresque and baroque, are those whose influence was strongest and which are most widely represented in Upper Peruvian colonial architecture.

The churches of Potosí, Chuquisaca, La Paz, and Cochabamba are many and notable; they uphold the colonial artistic tradition and arouse curiosity and admiration in foreigners. The stonecutters of Upper Peru, as they were humbly called, were heirs both of the artisans of prehistoric Tiahuanacu and of the stone carvers who wrought the beauties of the Escorial; they bequeathed monuments which have resisted the ravages of centuries and still stand to proclaim not only the piety, but also the energy and the good taste of past generations, and the Hispanic heritage which is the pride of the new.

The list of the most remarkable colonial architectural monuments to be found in Bolivian cities includes the Mint, the palace of the



Drawing by Amoretti.

COLONIAL ARCHITECTURAL
DETAILS EXTANT IN BOLIVIA.

A detail from a Bolivian colonial house, showing a creole version of the plateresque style.

Marquis of Otavi, the monastery of San Francisco, the delicate tower of La Compañía, San Lorenzo, and the cathedral, in Potosí; San Francisco, Santo Domingo, the cathedral, and the house of the Mar-

² Emilio Villanueva, "Disquisiciones sobre arte colonial", La Paz, 1925.

quises of Villaverde, in La Paz; San Lázaro, La Recoleta, and the sumptuous cathedral, in Chuquisaca, now Sucre; last of all, Santa Teresa, in Cochabamba.

San Francisco, Potosí, was begun in 1707 under the direction of Fray Juan Burruaga, and although its lines are, in general, gothic, it also shows the above-mentioned influences representative of the taste of that period, which assuredly do not lessen its beauty or diminish its majesty. It was finished by Fray Juan Arrieta of Potosí, after twenty years of work and the expenditure of enormous sums, the money coming as alms from wealthy mine owners of the city. The former Mint, as well as the cathedral, was begun in 1572. The rebuilding of the latter was commenced at the end of the eighteenth century by the architect Pedro Arrieta; it is one of the most beautiful and finely proportioned edifices still standing in Bolivia.

But the charm of "far away and long ago" possessed by Bolivian cities, especially Potosí, does not consist of isolated monuments, such as those now almost lost amid the mass of modern buildings in other cities of America. It lies rather in the whole effect, the general aspect, typically colonial quarters, in which there are many doorways with pilasters and coats of arms encircled by festoons, high balconies supported by corbels, double doors with columns at the corners, wrought-iron grills and so many other characteristic details that one has the impression of having been transported to the most typical corners of Seville or of Toledo.

III

In Bolivian churches and monasteries there are many paintings which date from the colonial period, some of real merit and indisputably Spanish in origin. In the cathedrals of La Paz and Chuquisaca and in the churches of Cochabamba and Potosí there are masterpieces attributed with good reason to Spanish artists of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries; included among these are works by Murillo, Ribera, and Zurbarán. But native Upper Peruvian painting also exists, showing the influence of contemporary Spanish schools, as may be seen in fine examples, not to be passed over lightly.³

Among the Upper Peruvian painters the one outstanding for the excellence and amount of his work is Pérez de Holguín of Potosí, who left more than forty canvases, all of religious subjects. This artist, a member of a prominent family, went to Spain while still a lad and took lessons in the studios of the great painters of the seventeenth century, becoming one of the best known pupils of Murillo. On his return to his native land he devoted himself wholeheartedly to his art;

³ See "Exhibition of Religious Art in Buenos Aires", BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, February 1935.—EDITOR.

and his work shows that he was swayed now by the influence of Murillo and now by that of Zurbarán, whose effects of light and shade he imitated most skilfully.

Many are the old paintings by unknown artists to be found in churches and monasteries in Bolivia, revealing different schools and tendencies, and unquestionably reflecting the period in which they were made. Thus, for example, beside paintings with characteristics of the Spanish primitives—especially the Basque pictures overloaded with gold decoration—may be seen canvases inspired by El Greco,

SEVENTEENTH CEN-
TURY RELIGIOUS
PAINTING AND
WOOD CARVING.

This example of two of the arts practiced in Upper Peru during colonial times was exhibited at the Exposition of Religious Art held in Buenos Aires last October.



Property of Srta. Celina González Garaño.

with his typical excitation of tragic religious feeling, or else paintings of mystic figures which recall Murillo in style. It would be interesting to catalog Upper Peruvian colonial painting and make a careful investigation into its origins and development; but the limited scope of this paper and the lack of material, inevitable when one is so far away from sources, oblige me to be content with a passing reference.

If this is to be a useful guide, however, it should be pointed out for the benefit of connoisseurs and sightseers that the cathedral of Sucre has three Murillos of practically proven authenticity and a Ribera

(*The Martyrdom of St. Bartholomew*); that the cathedral at La Paz owns two Rubens and two Murillos whose genuineness has been vouched for by experts; and finally, that many private collections in Bolivia contain pictures by the great Spanish masters, originals or good contemporaneous copies, in whose possession the owners take pride.

In the convent of Santa Teresa at Cochabamba there is a series of large paintings by a skilful hand, but the name of the artist has been lost; they deserve to be mentioned as examples of Upper Peruvian colonial painting. Composition, technique, coloring, everything in those paintings reveals a true artist whose identity, unfortunately, has not been established.

IV

Upper Peruvian sculpture, too, is Spanish sculpture, inspired by the works of Berruguete, Hernández, Cano, Pedro de Mena, and Montañés, but also showing influences resulting from the American atmosphere in which they were produced. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, wood carving flourished, an art in which Spanish sculptors of that period were finished craftsmen. Many religious images must have left Spain for Bolivian churches and private chapels, as was true of Peru, Quito, and other places in America; but it is also a recognized fact that able native and creole sculptors were not long in making their appearance. Imitators of the sculptors of Quito must also have flourished, for many of the images extant in Bolivia show characteristics of the work of Padre Carlos and Diego de Robles, although it would not be strange, either, if some of them had been brought from that great factory of religious statues which Quito then was. At all events, the art of the chisel and the gouge, the mallet and the file, had worthy cultivators in Upper Peru.

But the art of sculpture was not confined to making religious statues; it was also complementary to architecture. Wood carving included the making of altars and retables of incomparable beauty, paneling, coffered ceilings, choir stalls and stalls for chapter rooms, mouldings, and cornucopias of all kinds. The same art found expression in admirable examples of carving, such as chests, settees, chairs, confessionals, pulpits, lecterns, and candelabra, not to mention doors and windows, screens and firescreens. Such carving was generally covered with gold leaf, applied with such perfect skill that it has remained to the present day surprisingly fresh and brilliant.

There are three types of religious sculpture still to be found in Bolivian churches. The first consists of carved wooden figures, lightly coated with stucco; the clothing is included in the carving, and the whole has been delightfully painted in color. These are the



Property of Sr. Alejandro Madero.

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY UPPER PERUVIAN TAPESTRY.

"The Creation of Eve", shown at the Exhibition of Religious Art in Buenos Aires, was woven of alpaca wool.

least common and the most artistic in their simplicity. The second type consists of statues dressed in garments of painted and stiffened cloth; in these the clothing seems better stylized. The third and last type consists of the so-called "candlestick" images, in which only the head and hands, and occasionally the feet, are carved and painted; the rest of the body is simply blocked out. Although this type had little artistic merit, it did encourage, as in Spain, the manufacture of rich textiles, and gold, silver, and silk embroidery with incrustations of pearls and other jewels, real or paste. The embroiderers' guilds in the Upper Peruvian cities attended not only to the dressing of the images, but also to the making of sacred vestments (copes, chasubles, dalmatics, stoles, and bishop's miters), all of an extraordinary richness

and so perfectly done that today they are eagerly sought for and highly appreciated by connoisseurs and expert collectors. This art of embroidering with metal thread, then so carefully fostered, was the same as that used today in the elaborate costumes worn by native Bolivian dancers at carnival time and at certain civic and religious festivals, curious costumes that make strangers wonder at their variety and cost.

Because of the relation to sculpture, mention should be made of ceramics. Developing the already highly advanced pottery of the Quechuas and the Aymará, the colonial art of glazing was applied to clay modeling. Extant examples have real merit, showing traces of the old forms made at Talavera and the Buen Retiro; it must be recognized, however, that the Spaniards continued to permit and even encourage native art, with its own forms and decorative motives. This art has continued down to the present, although without attaining a very high degree of perfection.

There is circumstantial evidence of oriental peculiarities in Upper Peruvian sculpture or, rather, in colonial sculpture in general. This fact has made well-informed critics, such as Sartorio, whom I have already mentioned, think that during colonial days an artistic influence reached America from China and Japan, a not unlikely conclusion when one remembers that the religious orders settled in Mexico had already established contacts with Asiatic nations, from which they brought skilled workmen. "I have demonstrated", says Sartorio, "how innumerable altars show in their upper parts Indo-Chinese and Korean influences. The sculpture of images shows the same influence. Not only is it true that if the figures of saints in the sumptuous niches of many altars in La Paz, Lima, and Quito were replaced by statues of Brahma, Siva, and Buddha, the latter would feel quite at home, but it is also a fact that the Catholic images themselves have undergone a transformation." While recognizing that these opinions are not without basis, we might also infer that the influences claimed as imports from Asia during colonial times are, rather, native, that is, peculiar to that American environment which made Spanish art evolve with special characteristic forms. The similarity between American prehistoric art and that of Japan, China, or Korea, was long ago pointed out as one more proof of the hypothesis that the American races came, at a more or less remote date, from Asia.

Among the outstanding pieces of sculpture to be admired in Bolivian churches, special mention should be made of the *Cristo de la Vera Cruz*, in San Francisco, Potosí, whose sculptor and place of origin are unknown; the *Virgen de la Merced*, in the church of that name in the same city; the *Cristo del Gran Poder*, in the chapel of the Inquisition, Chuquisaca; and the *Virgen de Copacabana*, in the town and church of that name.

Notable examples of carving include the altars of San Augustin in Potosí and in Chuquisaca the choir stalls of La Recoleta, the retablo of the Dominican church, and the Jesuit Chapel, where later Congress held its sessions.

V

The work in metals, especially in silver, remains to be mentioned, for the silversmiths and silver workers of Upper Peru have been famous for the last four centuries. Because there was no marble it was quite

POLYCHROME SCULPTURE FROM UPPER PERU.

This seventeenth century crucifix was shown at the Exhibition of Religious Art in Buenos Aires.



Property of Sres. Carlos y Martín Noel.

natural for silver to be the favorite material for covering altars, and its abundance led it to be used with profusion in church ornamentation. The repoussé and hammered silver reached a really surprising degree of perfection, when we take into account the fact that all the work was done by hand and that the widely varied forms were achieved by hammer blows. Solid silver pieces representative of Upper Peruvian colonial art have sold for fabulous prices in Europe and the United States. Silver services, sacred vases, and objects used for worship, like custodias, wine vessels, and cups, all colonial in origin, still are

scattered in great numbers throughout Bolivia; objects of gold are not infrequently found.

In Potosí damascene arms were also manufactured. The Potosino sword-makers rivaled those of Lima and of Spanish Toledo in the quality and temper of their steel blades, as well as in the beauty of the inlay of precious metal.

The wrought iron work was no whit inferior; it appeared in door and window grilles, on balconies, and elsewhere. Works of bronze were

REPOUSSE SILVER
ALTAR FROM UPPER
PERU.

This eighteenth century altar of the Virgen de la Rosa figured in the Exposition of Religious Art in Buenos Aires.



Property of Srta. Celina González Garaño.

no less admirable: ornate knockers and rosettes for monumental doors, and braziers of every shape and size, around which evening parties gathered or prayers were said on long cold winter nights. . . .

VI

And, to complete the picture, a few words should be said of Upper Peruvian colonial music. Although it is true that the Conquistadors found in those altitudes, as in other parts of America, a fairly well developed indigenous music, with remarkable rhythms to which chroniclers like Garcilaso make interesting and colorful references,



Property of Sr. Antonio M. Barreto.

SEVENTEENTH CENTURY HAND WROUGHT SILVER FROM UPPER PERU.

These examples of the colonial silversmith's artistic accomplishments were displayed at the Exhibition of Religious Art held in Buenos Aires.

and although it is also true that that music has existed until modern times in forms which specialists in folklore are busy studying and collecting, it is no less evident that Spanish music made a deep impression on the soul of the creole population, so much so that it and the native music were fused to produce a music *sui generis* sharing the characteristics of both.

The lack of theaters and auditoriums which would have allowed the development of profane music made the colonial period prolific in religious compositions, beginning with the Gregorian chant introduced by priests during the Conquest, and ending with choruses for several parts and with orchestras directed by great chapel masters, whom the religious orders were careful to choose with real devotion and in keen though generous rivalry.

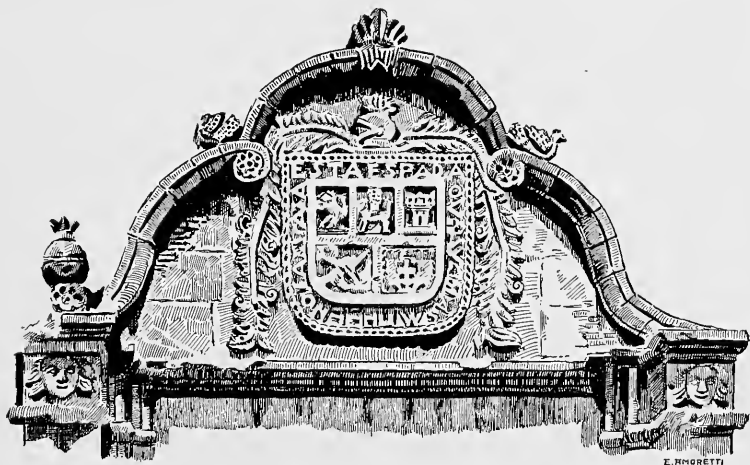
The monumental colonial organs which still exist in the churches, although some are now only useless and admired antiques, were for the most part built in the places where they were installed, and show

the zealous attempts which were made to surround worship with a more edifying solemnity. The Jesuit Missions of Mojos and Chiquitos were in this respect examples worthy of emulation. Their efforts at civilization inspired the *padres* to form great choruses and orchestras, and induced them to undertake the musical education of their neophytes, who became great musicians and able interpreters of such sacred composers as Morales, Flecha, Victoria, and many others. A bishop of Santa Cruz de la Sierra said in the seventeenth century that the most insignificant village in the Jesuit missions surpassed the most famous cathedrals in the quality of its choral groups, *a capella* or accompanied.

As for the profane music of the period, the chroniclers of Potosí mention the composer Gutierre de Gumiel, who wrote the *Countess' Minuet*, dedicated to the Countess of Tudela del Río; he also composed delightful gavottes and pavans.

The Bolivian bolero is reminiscent of Spanish music, but was also influenced by native melodies; this type of music is unquestionably one which is not cultivated at present in other parts of America. The concerts of the Pan American Union in Washington have given more than one opportunity to become acquainted with these Indo-Spanish compositions.

In conclusion, it may be truly said that Upper Peruvian colonial art is not only interesting but also deserving of full, systematic, and unhurried study. This brief essay, although written hastily, far from Bolivia, and with much essential material unavailable, may yet serve as the basis for a more comprehensive work, which I hope to be able to undertake in the future.





DR. MANUEL MÁRQUEZ STERLING, LATE AMBASSADOR OF CUBA TO THE
UNITED STATES.

DR. MANUEL MÁRQUEZ STERLING LATE AMBASSADOR OF CUBA

THE Governing Board of the Pan American Union, at its meeting held February 6, 1935, paid a heartfelt tribute to the memory of His Excellency Dr. Manuel Márquez Sterling, Ambassador of Cuba and distinguished member of that body, who died in Washington on December 9, 1934, at the age of 62.

The resolution expressing the deep regret of his colleagues at their loss was presented by the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States and Chairman of the Board, who said:

GENTLEMEN OF THE GOVERNING BOARD:

We are assembled today deeply conscious of the loss which we have sustained since our last meeting. After a long and distinguished career of public service, our beloved colleague, Dr. Manuel Márquez Sterling, has been taken from us. The history of his life is in a sense the history of the Cuban Republic for it was to the emancipation of his people that he dedicated his youth and early manhood.

His devoted service to his country is paralleled by his unceasing effort to promote the closest possible understanding between the republics of the American continent. As Cuba's diplomatic representative in several countries of the Pan American Union, he labored unceasingly to promote inter-American cooperation. As a member of this Board he was ever active in promoting the great purposes for which the Pan American Union was established. In presenting the resolution which I am about to lay before you, may I be permitted to combine therewith the expression of a deep sense of personal loss at the death of a highly valued friend. At the same time, may I ask you to rise as a token of our affection and respect for our departed colleague.

The resolution reads as follows:

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union

RESOLVES:

To spread on the minutes of the meeting an expression of the profound sorrow of the members of the Board at the death of their distinguished colleague and to record their deep appreciation of his important services.

The chairman of the Board is requested to transmit a copy of this resolution to the Government of Cuba and to the family of the deceased.

Newspaper owner and publisher, author of renown, chargé d'affaires in Argentina, Minister to Brazil, Peru, and Mexico and subsequently Ambassador to the last-named Republic, delegate to the Fifth and Sixth International Conferences of American States, delegate to the Commission of Investigation and Conciliation acting in the boundary dispute between Bolivia and Paraguay, Dr. Márquez Sterling had passed a full and generous life, devoted to the interests of his country. His ambassadorship in the United States will never be forgotten; it was he who negotiated and signed on May 29, 1934, on behalf of Cuba the treaty with the United States abrogating the Platt Amendment.

Cuba has lost one of its most representative men, one who united the qualities of a great gentleman, a citizen above reproach, and a distinguished statesman.

PAN AMERICAN CLUBS IN BRAZILIAN SCHOOLS

SOIL FOR THE FRUITS OF FRIENDSHIP

By HELOISE BRAINERD

Chief, Division of Intellectual Cooperation, Pan American Union

IN Rio de Janeiro, the beautiful capital of a great, friendly and peace-loving nation, there is being carried on a most significant experiment in education for peace—moral disarmament, as it is often called. Directed by the educational authorities of the Federal District, and backed by some of the most eminent public men of Brazil, this project deserves serious attention from educators and statesmen in all the countries of the New World, as well as from all lovers of peace.

The Pan American clubs in Rio de Janeiro enjoy a propitious environment, thanks in part to Brazil's proverbially broad international viewpoint,¹ and in considerable measure to the influence of an educator who is an ardent Pan Americanist—Dr. A. Carneiro Leão who, when Director of Education for the Federal District some years ago, initiated the plan of giving to various public schools the names of the other American republics. These schools have especially cultivated a friendly interest in the countries whose names they bear, each keeping in close touch with the ambassador or minister of the respective country in Rio, and the spirit of inter-American friendship has been gradually developing among the teachers of the city. Another educator who fostered the international point of view in the schools was Professor Maria Mercedes Mendes Teixeira. The present Director of Education, Dr. Anísio Spinola Teixeira, is likewise a man of strong Pan American sympathies, and has given his enthusiastic support to the plan for "Pan American clubs" in the schools. The first of these, the Alexandre de Gusmão Pan American Club, was organized over two years ago in the government's model secondary school, Collegio Pedro II, as one of the international relations clubs of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Composed of teachers and students, under the able direction of the secretary of the school, Dr. Octacílio Pereira, this club has held regular meetings and worked enthusiastically to create Pan American sentiment.

The founder of the clubs in elementary schools is Dona Alba Cañizares Nascimento, Superintendent of Elementary Education for the Federal District and also professor of education at one of the

¹ See "The Amicable Settlement of the Brazilian Boundary Disputes", by Raul d'Eça, in *BULLETIN of the Pan American Union*, March 1935.

normal schools. To her knowledge of the child mind and of modern educational practices, as much as to her unbounded zeal for Pan American solidarity and peace, is due the enthusiastic response of the children who form the fifteen Pan American clubs in the sixth school district of Rio de Janeiro. These clubs, which were organized during the year 1934, form a union of which Miss Nascimento is president.

Back of these clubs lies an ideal of peace and harmony which is shared by all the nations of the Western Hemisphere. Miss Nascimento quotes from the great Brazilian statesman Joaquim Nabuco:

PROFESSOR ALBA
CAÑIZARES
NASCIMENTO.

Professor Nascimento's interest in Pan American friendship and peace led to her founding the Pan American Clubs in the elementary schools of Rio de Janeiro. A professor of education in a normal school, Miss Nascimento is also Superintendent of Elementary Education for the Brazilian capital.



“America is the hemisphere of peace, which counterbalances the hemisphere of war”, and in which “a new humanity has been formed”, among free peoples, in vast and rich territories, untroubled by ancient hatreds, in an atmosphere conducive to fruitful labor and harmony, with common ideals of liberty, democratic government, and peaceful relations. There is among the American peoples a sense of continental solidarity, of their collective destiny as advocates of peace and brotherhood among the nations of the world.

Miss Nascimento is strongly impressed with the possibilities offered by the school as an agency for creating peace sentiment. In Europe,

she says, the school is often used to inculcate the warlike spirit; in America it must be directed toward strengthening the spirit of peace. Then, too, since international friendship is one of the primary objectives of the "new education", to which Brazilian educators are definitely committed, this Pan American club project is closely linked with the aims and methods of the modern educational movement which has swept over Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo and other Brazilian cities.

In an effort to make a practical application of peace teaching in the experience of the child, these clubs have been established on a self-government basis. The general instructions issued by the Department of Education set forth as the aim of the Pan American clubs that they shall be active organs of socializing education directed toward building up the spirit of international cooperation and the



THE FLORIANO PEIXOTO SCHOOL, RIO DE JANEIRO.

In this school, of unusual architectural design, there has been formed a Pan American Club in honor of Dr. Anísio Teixeira, the Director of Education and a staunch Pan Americanist.

sense of human solidarity, and particularly toward increasing a knowledge of the other American nations. Each club holds monthly meetings under the direction of its elected officers, at which the history, customs and present-day activities of the 21 American Republics are reported on and illustrated by plays, songs, dances, games, etc. The membership is divided into 21 committees, each of which makes a special study of one of the American nations. Its members from time to time give information to the club concerning the manners and customs of the country represented, taking the part of the ambassador or consul of the nation. This feature was suggested by the methods used by the international relations clubs affiliated with the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Each club has an advisory council of five teachers, chosen preferably from the Depart-



OFFICERS OF THE HELIO LOBO PAN AMERICAN CLUB.

The Pan American clubs, of which there were fifteen in 1934, are self-governed, although they form a union of which Miss Nascimento is president.

ment of Foreign Languages, that of Social Sciences or the Library. The clubs will especially celebrate the great dates in the history of the Americas, discover the particular contributions each country has made to the cause of peace, and keep in touch with present-day happenings through the moving picture and the radio. Relations will be established with school children in the other Republics for the exchange of albums, pictures, magazines, stamps, music, flags, etc.

Clubs are now being organized in all the schools of Rio de Janeiro, secondary and vocational as well as elementary, adapting the program to the interests of youth of different ages. It has been found, however, that the most satisfactory results are obtained with children from 9 to 14 years of age.

This is, then, an attempt to cultivate systematically Pan American understanding and harmony through the medium of the school, an idea often recommended by Pan American conferences and particularly by the Inter-American Conference on Education held in Chile last September. Among the American peoples, Miss Nascimento affirms the only possible basis for peace and unity is a recognition of the sovereignty of each nation, a community of ideas and sentiments, an acceptance of the same juridical principles—in a word, *Pan Americanism*. This is not, however, in opposition to broad internationalism.

Recognizing the tremendous importance of training a new generation in Pan American ideals, the Department of Education of Rio de Janeiro is deliberately orienting the schools towards the formation of a new American spirit, in the hope that it will serve as an inspiration to similar efforts in other parts of Brazil and in the sister American Republics. Brazilians of such international fame as Afranio de Mello Franco, former Minister of Foreign Affairs, who presided over the Leticia negotiations; Felix Pacheco, former Minister of Foreign Affairs, editor, and poet; Rodrigo Octavio, distinguished jurist, and Helio Lobo, diplomat and jurist, have expressed the hope that the movement may spread to all parts of the American continent, and this desire is fervently shared by the officials of the Pan American



THE UNITED STATES SCHOOL, RIO DE JANEIRO.

A friendly gesture on the part of the Rio educational authorities is the custom adopted several years ago of giving schools the names of sister republics.

Union. In the United States of America there are already in existence over 80 Pan American clubs, principally in high schools,³ which are being put in touch with those in Brazil through the medium of the Pan American Union. It is earnestly hoped that in the near future Pan American clubs will be found in schools all over the Western Hemisphere, learning through special study and through the exchange of correspondence and of interesting objects to feel such a kinship with the young people of other American nations that they will spare no effort to preserve peace. To repeat the sentence used on the cover of the Pan American Day issue of the BULLETIN, "Comprehension must be the soil in which shall grow all the fruits of friendship."

³ See article "Pan American Student Clubs", by Heloise Brainerd, in the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, April 1932 and "Progress among the Pan American Student Clubs", by the same author, in the BULLETIN, September 1934.

THE SECOND INTER-AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION

AT the invitation of the Chilean section of the Inter-American Federation of Education, the Second Inter-American Conference on Education was held in Santiago from September 8 to 14, 1934. Nineteen countries were represented and the meeting was most successful in every way. The tone of the gathering was set at the inaugural session. Señor Agustín Edwards, the distinguished president of the conference, said on that occasion:

We are confident that the exchange of ideas, experiences, and practices among such eminent educators should give rise to a continental conception of education, one better adapted to the needs of this age, in which material and mechanical progress has apparently outstripped political, philosophical, economic, cultural, and social concepts, threatening to imprison the human soul in the dark, narrow, and airless cell of pure materialism. . . .

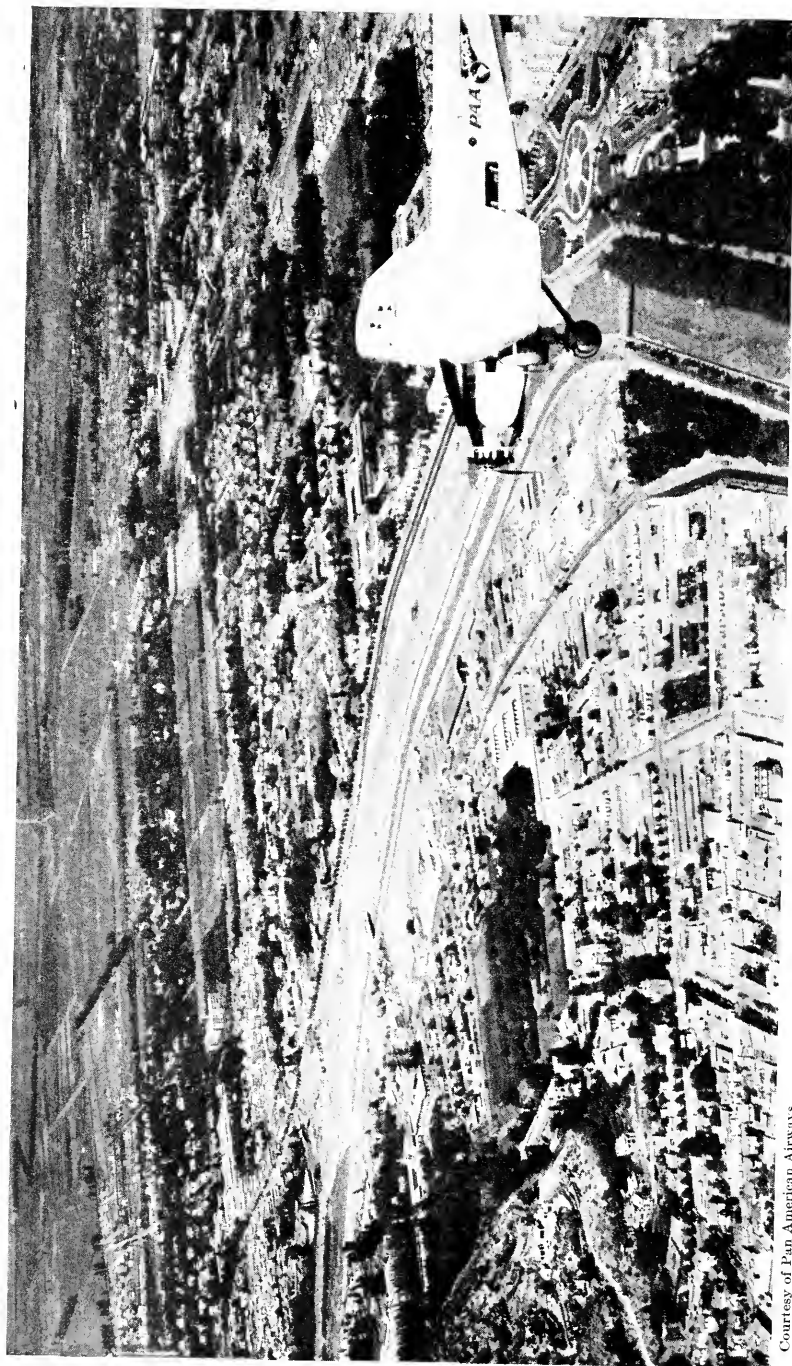
This conference has for its purpose an increase of the educational capital of the new American generations. This is a treasure more precious than any other which we could bequeath them, for it is the only one of which the vicissitudes of life and the wiles of men can never deprive them.

Many of the resolutions passed stressed inter-American cooperation and the promotion of peace. In approving its first motion, a greeting to all teachers throughout the Americas, the conference agreed to "repeat its desire that brotherhood and peace shall be foremost in the minds and acts of American nations, and that the educators of these nations place more and more emphasis . . . on perfecting spiritual qualities in the present generation and guiding it toward mutual understanding and a constant, effective, and elevated Pan Americanism."

Next, unanimous approval was given to a motion in which the conference expressed the hope that Bolivia and Paraguay might soon arrange the peace which all the educators assembled at that meeting so earnestly desired.

At a later session a declaration was approved recommending that the formation of national consciousness through education should accord with the purposes and ideals of inter-American cooperation, and that therefore cultural ties should be strengthened and the teaching of history and geography improved.

The conclusions approved by the conference dealt to a large degree with technical phases of education, but even there the desire for American understanding found expression. That dealing with teacher training, for example, advocated "the establishment of the



SANTIAGO, CHILE, FROM THE AIR.

The Chilean capital was the scene of the Second Inter-American Conference on Education, in which prominent educators from 19 countries participated.

Courtesy of Pan American Airways.

necessary facilities and organizations for closer understanding and cooperation between teachers of the different nations on this continent, in order to assure the progress of educational institutions and to make certain that American brotherhood is established on the firmest of foundations, that is, in the hearts of children." The conclusion on the teaching of history in American secondary schools recommended the revision of textbooks as to accuracy and impartiality, and requested other governments to adhere to the convention on the revision of history and geography textbooks, which was signed by Argentina and Brazil on October 1, 1933.

The conclusion on inter-American economic education was in line with the action of the Seventh International Conference of American States giving an economic content to Pan Americanism, and advocated economic studies of the American nations related to instruction in geography, history, literature and science and the collection and transmission of up-to-date information on these subjects by the diplomatic and consular representatives of each country. In consonance with this resolution the University of Chile proceeded to appoint Señor Benjamín Cohen, counselor of the Chilean Embassy in Washington, its permanent representative before the universities of the United States. Chile has also appointed educational representatives in Montevideo and Berlin.

The conclusions of the conference not already mentioned dealt with: character education; vocational education and guidance; radio; use of educational films; film censorship; better preparation and selection of teachers; progressive education; ethical basis of culture; the content of primary and secondary education, which should inculcate love of work, eradicate disdain for manual labor and humble trades, and foster initiative and enterprise; rural education; school health service and cooperation with sanitary authorities; causes of absence from school; technical education; professional, scientific, economic, social and art studies and specialized research in universities; education for social service; cooperation between universities; modern instruction in drawing; Indian education; nursery schools; education of girls as homemakers; school lunches; and assistance for students working their way through college.

The Inter-American Federation of Education was established to promote Pan American accord through education in general and through character education and vocational training in particular. It will be seen from the summary of the proceedings of the conference, however, that its discussions were extended to cover a wider field.

Although the holding of conferences or congresses dealing with educational matters had been suggested from time to time ever since the meeting of the Second Pan American Scientific Congress in Washington in 1915, the first conference did not meet until 1929.

It was held in Atlanta, under the auspices of and in connection with the meeting of the National Education Association of the United States, and was for preliminary organization only. Educators from 10 American countries attended. Chile joined the federation in 1931 and welcomed the opportunity to hold the second conference in Santiago.

The conference opened with a reception given by President Alessandri, accompanied by the Ministers of Foreign Affairs and of Education, in La Moneda, the presidential palace, to the delegates of the 19 countries officially represented. The President greeted the delegates with a cordial address, in which he said:



THE INAUGURAL SESSION OF THE CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION.

At the opening session of the conference in the reception room of the capitol the delegates were addressed by President Alessandri and leaders in Chilean education.

I believe that the greatest need of the modern world is peace. The world should once and for all require it of the universe, but this purpose cannot be realized unless moral disarmament has first been attained in men's minds. This high end will be reached only after implanting the desire for peace and concord as a religion and a supreme aspiration in the hearts and souls of children.

The opening session was held on September 9 in the reception room of the National Congress, President Alessandri presiding. The Minister of Public Education, Señor Osvaldo Vial, opened the meeting, stressing the importance of education which, he said, "should give back to humanity confidence and faith in better days to come, by directing the new generations along paths of peace, social union, and brotherhood." The rector of the University of Chile, Señor Juvenal Hernández, one of the outstanding figures in Chilean education today, was another of the speakers on the program.

In addition to the regular meetings of the conference and the educational exhibits arranged for the occasion, special entertainment was offered the delegates. Among the educational features presented were the gymnastic review in which more than two thousand students from the secondary schools of Santiago took part; the concert by a choral group from the same schools; and visits to the military and naval academies in Santiago and Valparaíso, respectively, and to the Instituto de Ingenieros José Miguel Carrera in Valparaíso. This institute is part of the Santa María Foundation, a large bequest left by a Chilean millionaire for the training of boys in trades and in engineering. The delegates were also offered the most cordial and gracious hospitality by Government officials and by educational and civic bodies.



THE UNIVERSITY OF CHILE, SANTIAGO.

Following the inaugural ceremonies, the Conference on Education transferred its labors to the National University where the subsequent sessions were held.

It was unanimously decided that the Third Inter-American Conference on Education be held in 1937 in Mexico City.

As a result of the conference, a group of distinguished Chilean educators has been making a series of visits to other American countries. At the conference Costa Rica was represented by its Minister of Education, who was instructed to invite on behalf of his government a delegation composed of the rector of the University of Chile and several deans and educators connected with that institution to visit his country. Following this invitation other governments offered similar hospitality to the group, so that before coming to the United States the Chilean educators visited Panama, Guatemala, Costa Rica, and Mexico, being entertained as official guests in the three countries last

named. In the United States they have visited educational institutions from west to east on an itinerary planned by the Institute of International Education and carried out through the generosity of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. In Panama, Costa Rica and Mexico they made arrangements for the interchange of professors and the organization of institutes to promote friendly relations between Chile and the country visited.

It has just been announced that, as a result of the visit of the mission to the United States, Professors A. Brenes Mesén of Northwestern University and Herbert E. Bolton of the University of California will spend the coming year at the University of Chile. An exchange has been arranged between the former and Professor Mariano Latorre, an authority on Spanish literature.

The members of the delegation are as follows: Señor Don Juvenal Hernández, rector (president) of the University of Chile; Señor Don Domingo Durán, former Minister of Education, a leader of the Radical Party of Chile, who gave active support to the plans for the Inter-American Conference on Education; Señor Don Gustavo Lira, dean of the School of Engineering of the University of Chile, who has also been rector of the university and Minister of Education; Señor Don Darío Benavente, director of the School of Law; Señora Amanda Labarca, representative of the Government on the University Council, and a prominent educator and writer; and Señor Don Raúl Ramírez, philologist and professor at the College of Education of the University of Chile and Secretary of the Second Inter-American Conference on Education.



EATING ONE'S WAY THROUGH THE YEAR IN GUATEMALA

By LILLY DE JONGH OSBORNE

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Member of the Academy of Fine Arts of San Fernando, Madrid*

JUST as the average resident of New England craves a dish of baked beans and brown bread on Saturday night, while codfish balls are never missing from the Sunday breakfast menu, so the good and true Guatemalans are very particular that the proper food is served on their many feast days during the year. It would spoil the event if the wrong food were served, an even worse *faux pas* than having a turkeyless Thanksgiving dinner in the United States.

The Guatemalan kitchen is as large as the average New York apartment, walls washed in soft pastel colors. In the middle of the floor there is a mound of brick, about a meter high, which has little holes. In it is placed the coal on which the pots and pans rest—it would not be good form for the pot to call the kettle black, for they have to lean in a friendly and tender manner against each other so as to preserve their balance and occupy the least possible space on the small charcoal fires in the holes. Often this stove will have blue and white tiles laid on top of it and a chimney to guide the smoke outside. The large kitchen window has iron bars, but these do not obstruct the view of the patio, where the necessary *pila* (tank) is built. This *pila* contains all the household water supply and forms the biggest worry with which the housekeeper has to contend. Mention must be made of the colorful pots and pans of earthenware, in lovely green and red glaze, with an occasional flower or bird painted on them. Mercedes, the cook, more than fits into the picture. Small and sturdy, she wears her tribal clothes of hand woven material; a skirt of blue and white cotton, which is tightly wrapped around her, so that when she grinds anything on the *piedra de moler* she has to assume a peculiar kneeling posture; and a gay *huipil* (blouse) with many little embroidered animals strutting across it. The red belt and many colored ribbons in her hair are bright touches, which are supplemented by filigree earrings and a coin necklace, heavy with silver images and a cross, when she is dressed to go to market.

In recent years, the better-class houses have kitchens which are modern and up-to-date in every detail. Even electric ranges with modern gadgets have taken the place of the oldstyle ones, and clear running water makes the life of the Indian cook a much easier if

not a picturesque one. But such kitchens as I have described can still be found in many a typical household where the good and true Guatemalan cuisine is served regularly.

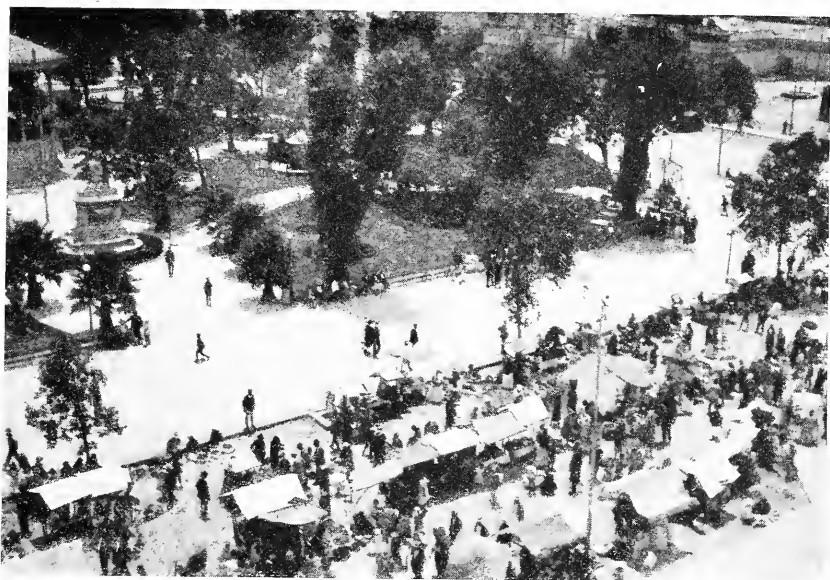
Marketing is done daily and is an adventure indeed, for never by any chance are the prices alike on two consecutive days, or even at different hours of the same day. Bargaining is a fine art to be cultivated by all first-class cooks; no vendor will consider a cook self-respecting if she will not bargain for at least a chicken which is very much alive and cackling, for which the owner asks all of a dollar, and for which she will be delighted to receive fifty cents. By twenty minutes' bargaining the price of onions may be reduced five cents on the dozen; so why worry about time?

In the rainy season the drinking water has to be bought. It arrives at the house in a miniature cart, drawn by a decrepit donkey who stops at customers' houses without command. The water is then placed in large earthenware jars, where it is kept until needed. Coal is brought to the door on the back of Indian men or donkeys; it is sold in large string bags. When wood is used, it is bought from ox carts, at so much per every four sticks. Pots and pans are scoured with plenty of sand, making their lives very short ones.

Everything in the Guatemalan kitchen has a charm quite its own, even the plain pine chair, which has been brought into town upon the back of an Indian from remote regions high on the mountain sides where the pine trees grow. It may even have travelled for five or six days to reach the city, but was sold for a modest sum.

All the above will give an idea of the setting in which the feast day meals are prepared, either by our faithful Mercedes, or others of her kind. Each of the cooks has always a small girl of her tribe as helper, who grinds, chops the ingredients, carries into the kitchen the water from the *pila*, and in general earns her keep.

The month of December is especially gay with Christmas to brighten the outlook. The traditional tamales are eaten just after coming home from midnight mass on the 24th. These tamales are not to be equalled even by the Mexican variety, and certainly not by those eaten from a tin in northern countries. Guatemalan tamales are of enormous proportions, made out of well-ground corn or rice, and turkey with spices, the whole wrapped in plantain leaves and cooked on a bed of great leaves of a particular shrub called *chojoj*; they must be served very hot to be properly appreciated. December nights are gay, the air is full of echoes and the steady beating of a turtle shell, while a parade goes through the streets carrying the figures of Joseph and Mary, both dressed in traveling clothes. This parade goes down streets and alleyways, seeking admittance to a friendly house, being refused shelter over and over again, until the right house is reached, where it has been arranged that they shall be



Courtesy of the United Fruit Company.

GUATEMALAN MARKETS.

Upper: The Corpus Christi fiesta in Guatemala City. At this and other religious festivals, small booths are erected in the vicinity of the churches to dispense the foods, as well as toys and mementos, usually associated with the particular celebration. Lower: A curb market. The pavement is lined with the colorful woven baskets and pottery in the making of which the Guatemalan Indians are adept.

admitted. While the *posada*, as this parade is called, is entering the house amidst much singing and rejoicing, refreshments are being made ready. Earthenware cups or *posillos*, or others called *jicaras* made out of the fruit of the *morro* tree, are filled with the prescribed drink for this occasion; it is made out of a dried plumlike fruit called *jocotes* mixed with spices, ground corn, and ginger root. The combination is so powerful that it produces much hilarity and good cheer after a few rounds of it.

Instead of the traditional Christmas tree, the Guatemalans erect a *nacimiento*. It is made on the floor of the best room of the house, which is converted into a miniature landscape. Everything is pictured here, from mountain ranges to whole villages, rivers of glass, flowers of paper, Indian figures dressed in exact imitations of their tribal clothes, the Manger with the Christ Child, Joseph and Mary, the Wise Men and the Beasts, all have a special place. Throngs of people go from one *nacimiento* to another all during the week after Christmas, visiting them and making comments as to the merits of the various ones. It is an old custom that friends of the family should steal the figure of the Christ Child from the *nacimiento* and carry it off to their own house. Eventually it is again returned to its own home. This is the occasion for a whole week of prayer, which ends with a feast, at which it is *de rigueur* that the delicious *buñuelos* be served. These toothsome delicacies are somewhat like doughnuts with honey poured over them and served with leaves of red and pink geranium flowers. These festivities last well into January, with an extra spurt for the sixth, or Epiphany; in fact, nobody thinks of doing any consecutive work till after this day is passed and most of the *nacimientos* are carefully packed away till next year.

In the particular family of which I am thinking as I write, the youngest child has a birthday in February, which must be celebrated in a fitting manner. Every little friend must be invited weeks in advance to come to a *piñata*, a term applied to the huge earthenware jar which is the main feature of the party. This is decorated with crêpe paper to represent a clown, or a swan, or dancing lady; or perhaps the wee one has expressed a desire for a Pierrot or a rose. The *piñata* is filled with all sorts of goodies and suspended by a cord from the ceiling. Each child is blindfolded in turn and led to a point near the *piñata*, so that he or she can try to break it with a long stick. The others watch carefully in order to be near when it breaks and spills its contents on the floor. Once the *piñata* has been broken, the children are served with tall glasses of *agua de canela*, very pink and tempting, though not the proverbial pink lemonade of northern children's circus days, but a drink made out of cinnamon sticks well boiled in plenty of water. It is pleasing to the eye and entirely harmless. As the little guests leave, each is presented with a sugar

swan with a pink or blue ribbon around its neck. I have been at many children's parties, but all the swans seem to grow to the same size.

The ingenuity of Mercedes is taxed to its limit in March, when Lent requires that she feed the family on meatless meals for so long. She then does her best with codfish, not in balls, but done with tomatoes, capers and hard-boiled eggs all fried together with a few potatoes

A FAIR ON CERRO DEL CARMEN.

The slope of the hill overlooking Guatemala City is the scene of a picturesque fair. Here are displayed some of the tempting fruits—always a conspicuous feature of the markets.



and the shredded codfish—as different from the New England dish as the Latin temperament is from the Anglo Saxon. This is the season for the small inland lake fish called *mojarras* which are bought strung on green cane sticks; these fish are cooked well fried in batter, highly seasoned. Vegetables like *juiquiles*, *wicoys*, string beans and delicate palm shoots are dressed up in egg batter, fried in deep fat and served with a rich tomato sauce.

April ushers in Holy Week, and every housekeeper sees that her cook has all the necessary ingredients to make the delicious *empanadas*. They come in two varieties, both toothsome and dainty, whether those with milk filling or the ones which have vegetables of all kinds. They are really a sort of glorified tart, the pastry made with eggs and much shortening so that it is crisp. Often instead of being browned in the oven they are well fried.

When the month of May arrives, everyone feels obliged to go to the fiesta at Lake Amatitlán, which is not far from Guatemala City. Here the traditional Fiesta de la Cruz takes place on the second of the month. The last of the outdoor fiestas before the rainy season commences, it is a survival of prehistoric times when about this season the fertility feasts were celebrated. At Amatitlán everyone partakes of the delicate small fish called *pepexcas* and never comes home without having taken a dip in the clear waters of the lake, and bringing as a memento to the stay-at-homes a pine box gaily colored, containing candies in grotesque forms.

June with the earth just getting a gentle green carpet after the first rains, the atmosphere cool and soft, is a fitting setting for the celebration of the Corpus Christi feast. Every church in the city has its separate celebration, so that it takes weeks before they are all ended. All good churchgoers take part in as many of these fiestas as possible. The church which is celebrating is gaily decorated with many-colored paper streamers. In the small booths which dot the sidewalks leading to the church much food is dispensed, the principal item being *pepián*, a well-flavored meat mixture served in earthenware dishes with a thick black gravy made out of toasted bread. *Tamales de cambray* are also a symbol of this fiesta; they are tamales made without any meat and with the corn or rice ground very fine. The marimba plays gay tunes on the steps of the church while the crowds take in everything; the children stand by the booths where small toys hang, and the grown-ups buy the traditional decorated fruit. Nobody thinks of going home without a peach or pear decorated with a chenille dove or monkey; why these animals should be the favored ones has never been made clear.

In July Santiago (Saint James), the patron saint of Guatemala City, has his fiesta on the 25th. When the Spaniards conquered the territory which is now the Republic of Guatemala, they named their capital "La Muy Noble y Leal Ciudad de Santiago de los Caballeros de Guatemala". No special food seems to be on the menu for that day, so it is well to mention here the excellent quality of Guatemalan coffee. In the first place it is coffee which is grown at the right altitude for a rich strong flavor; then there is always enough water on the Guatemalan estates to wash and prepare the coffee as it should

be made ready for the market. We do not drink coffee the way it is drunk in other countries. A strong, very strong, and black essence is poured from a small glass bottle or pitcher into the cups at the same time with either very hot water or milk, using both hands for this so as to make the blend delicious. People who do not care for coffee drink the delicious chocolate made out of tablets of paste ground at home in every well-regulated household from the cacao beans grown in the country; it is well flavored with vanilla or cinnamon, according to taste. A tablet is placed in a cup of boiling water

COFFEE PICKERS.

Indian girls assist in the harvest of Guatemala's chief product and export, which has won favor for its excellence.



or milk, and well stirred with a wooden whorl which produces a lovely foamy drink, most comforting on a drizzly wet night.

August is celebrated for its annual fair in Guatemala City. To this fair come Indians from all over the country, bringing their particular merchandise for trade and barter. Clay toys, wooden boxes, whistles from far-off Totonicapán, carved gourds from Rabinal, baskets of special little breads from Patzún, guitars, and a hundred other varieties of stuff come from distant corners. Their makers travel days and even weeks to attend this fair, wearing their best clothes which make a bright corner on the streets where they take their stands

with their goods. Corn husks painted in aniline dyes and containing candies are called *rosarios* (rosaries) and are a tradition of this feast; no child feels that it has been to the fair and enjoyed itself unless a string of these has been hung around its neck and its parents have bought for it the little whistles, candies called *dulce de pepitoria*, besides innumerable other tiny objects especially made for the small ones.

Guatemala celebrates its independence from Spain (1821) on the fifteenth of September. Since many private fiestas take place on that day, it is also chosen for the baptism of the youngest member of the family of which I write. After the service in the Catholic church (the baby is dressed in a white dress with ruffles upon ruffles of lace over a colored lining), the parents and godparents gather at the house for refreshments. A glass of *horchata*, very cold and appetizing, is served. This is a drink made of well-ground rice, flavored with cinnamon; it is a thick milk-like beverage, much liked on hot days. Of course it is well sugared, as are all of the drinks and food served to the Guatemalans.

The twelfth of October is always observed, to show that the people do not forget that epoch-making date. The day has fittingly been called *El Día de la Raza*, (The Day of the Race) to commemorate their descent from their Spanish mother country. On that day the delectable dish called *arroz con pollo* (chicken with rice) is eaten. It is a dish which the Spaniards are adepts at concocting. The principal ingredients, of course, are diced chicken, rice, red peppers, hard-boiled eggs, much parsley, black pepper, salt, capers, and red chiles to give it flavor.

On November first and second, regular processions of people go to the cemetery to lay wreaths on the graves of their dear departed. Naturally a dish must be prepared for important days such as these two. *Fiambre*, which is a sort of glorified Russian salad made out of meat, fowl, fish, spices, all kinds of vegetables, cheese, hard-boiled eggs, etc., is sent around to one's neighbors and friends; it is really a most delicious affair, not at all as terrifying as it sounds. The lower classes, especially the Indians, observe All Saints and All Souls Days by taking to the cemetery large dishes filled with spiced pumpkin and *jocotes en dulce* (jocote fruit in much sugar); these they place at the head of the grave of their departed, hence the name *cabecera* (head-piece) by which the viand is known. This is to keep the deceased from being hungry on these days when they are supposed to return to this earth for a night, and is supposed to be eaten by the dead. Most certainly it vanishes before the donor returns next morning; it provides a good meal for some poor soul on earth who wishes all days were November the first.

Weddings, as well as deaths, especially among the lower class of people and the Indians, are occasions for much activity in the kitchen. At weddings all typical food is served after the ceremony is over, the friends of the family helping to prepare such delicacies as fried rice, tamales, *empanadas de plátano* (banana empanadas), *mole* and many others, according to the means of the parents. When the family is wealthy, they are eaten to the tune of bubbling champagne, while many and frequent drinks of "white-eye" are taken by those not able to afford the other. The same drink is plentiful at funerals amongst the lower classes; a wake is a gay affair with them.

So the year goes by, the spice of life being provided by the festive food, the staff being the everyday dishes for which Guatemalan cooks are famous on every day through the year. Everyone must have tortillas for both luncheon and dinner; they are flat round corn cakes which make a delicious substitute for bread, especially when served with plenty of butter while hot. With cream cheese they are at their best. *Atole* is a much-liked and most nourishing drink, brewed of corn; it is often served hot and flavored with cinnamon or vanilla. Rice and black beans are the staple foods of the people, whether they are descendants of the aristocratic Spaniards who came with the conquistadors, or lowly Indians. Everybody has at least one dish of them a day.

The following are a few recipes for foods which may be prepared according to the Guatemalan way, substituting sometimes for the tropical ingredients some more familiar and easier to secure in the United States.

ENCHILADAS.—Take hominy instead of ground corn and make flat tortillas (pancakes). Fry them in deep fat and drain them. In the middle of each one put chopped and well-seasoned meat, over this some chopped beets and a tablespoon of tomato sauce; over the whole sprinkle a few capers or cucumbers and mashed cream cheese with some minced parsley. Serve very hot.

STRING BEANS A LA GUATEMALA.—Fry string beans in egg batter a few at a time. Serve with tomato sauce into which a teaspoon of onion has been chopped.

TAMALES.—Use hominy instead of ground corn; cook it well so that it can be handled like dough and mix with fat. Separate enough for each tamal and put into the center of the flat cake a goodly portion of cooked turkey meat. Mix a sauce of tomatoes, capers, olives, several kinds of peppers if you like it hot, a little flour, a few raisins and spices. Take a tablespoon of this sauce and pour over the turkey meat, then roll the whole tamal in corn husks or plantain leaves (you might use small pudding cloths), tie in the middle just as you would a small parcel, doubling back all the edges to avoid leakage, and cook in a large kettle of boiling water until well done. Serve very hot with hot coffee.

CHILES RELLENOS (STUFFED PEPPERS).—Take large green peppers, clean well and put into water to soak over night. Fry some chopped meat (preferably pork), add chopped onions, tomatoes, salt and pepper, and any left over vegetables you may have, some cooked rice and cayenne pepper. Stuff the peppers

with this mixture, dip each pepper into well-beaten egg batter, and fry in deep fat. Serve with thin tomato sauce well seasoned with pepper, salt and onion.

EMPANADAS DE PLÁTANO.—Take large plantains, or if not available, take large bananas which are not too soft, cut into two-inch pieces and boil in the skin until tender and well done. Peel and mash with a silver fork, add salt, pepper and a bit of flour—enough to make a paste which can be handled. Take small pieces of this and flatten out into small cakes; into the middle of each put some fresh cream cheese or some well-cooked and mashed black beans. Fold over and drop into deep fat, cooking till they are a deep brown. Sprinkle a little sugar over the top and serve hot with cream.

RICE A LA GUATEMALA.—Wash the rice well and let it dry. Put a lump of fat into a frying pan; when hot fry several pieces of onion and some pieces of tomato. When this is all very hot drop the rice into it and let it brown, but not burn, then cover it with stock or boiling water. Set the pan at the back of the stove to simmer until the liquid has been completely absorbed. If a fork proves the rice to be still hard, repeat the hot water or stock till the rice is soft enough to eat, but be very careful not to touch the rice while it is simmering, or it will become a spongy mass. After tasting this variety of rice you will never want to eat plain boiled rice again. It is good when browned in the oven after the above cooking, or when plenty of tomatoes are added to left-over rice and then browned in a baking dish with a bit of grated cheese over the top. It may also be well mixed with cooked chicken, pimentoes, red peppers, hard boiled eggs, and garnished with parsley, red peppers, and capers, with a little cream cheese sprinkled over the top. Then it is called "arroz con pollo".



TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH LATIN AMERICA IN 1934

By MATILDA PHILLIPS

Chief, Statistical Division, Pan American Union

THERE was an increase of 27.6 per cent during 1934 in United States trade with Latin America, the combined total of exports and imports amounting to \$678,964,000. Imports totaled \$370,935,000, an increase of 17.3 per cent over 1933, and exports amounted to \$308,029,000, an increase of 42.8 per cent.

Imports from the northern group of countries amounted to \$143,262,000, a gain of 24 per cent as compared with 1933, and those from South America to \$227,673,000, an increase of 13.5 per cent.

Exports to the Republics of North America, valued at \$147,687,000, showed an increase of 43.9 per cent over 1933, and those to South America at \$160,342,000, an increase of 41.7 per cent.

A comparison of the trade of 1934 with that of 1933 of the individual countries shows percentage increases in imports of all the Republics except four, the increases ranging from 10.5 per cent for Honduras to 99 per cent for Chile. The declines were in purchases from Nicaragua, 25 per cent, Costa Rica, 46.7 per cent, Argentina, 12.8 per cent, and Colombia, 1 per cent.

Exports show increases to every country except Haiti, shipments to that Republic declining by less than 5 per cent. The increases varied from 5.8 per cent for the Dominican Republic to 126 per cent for Chile.

The trade of the United States with the various Republics of Latin America for the year ended December 1934, compared with that of the preceding year, is shown in the following table, which has been compiled from reports of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce.

Trade of the United States with Latin America, 12 months ended December

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

UNITED STATES IMPORTS FROM LATIN AMERICA

COUNTRY OF ORIGIN	1933	1934	Percent change in 1934
Mexico.....	30,716	36,495	+18.8
Guatemala.....	3,484	4,543	+30.3
El Salvador.....	2,108	2,539	+20.4
Honduras.....	7,046	7,791	+10.5
Nicaragua.....	2,225	1,668	-25.0
Costa Rica.....	3,944	2,102	-46.7
Panama.....	3,376	4,187	+24.0
Cuba.....	58,498	78,929	+34.9
Dominican Republic.....	3,279	3,785	+15.4
Haiti.....	804	1,223	+52.1
North American Republics.....	115,480	143,262	+24.0
Argentina.....	33,841	29,487	-12.8
Bolivia ¹	105	152	+44.7
Brazil.....	82,628	91,484	+10.7
Chile.....	11,503	22,910	+99.1
Colombia.....	47,637	47,115	-1.0
Ecuador.....	1,888	3,099	+64.1
Paraguay ¹	262	404	+54.1
Peru.....	5,472	6,191	+13.1
Uruguay.....	3,773	4,711	+24.8
Venezuela.....	13,451	22,120	+64.4
South American Republics.....	200,560	227,673	+13.5
Total Latin America.....	316,040	370,935	+17.3

UNITED STATES EXPORTS TO LATIN AMERICA

COUNTRY OF DESTINATION	1933	1934	Percent change in 1934
Mexico.....	37,521	55,356	+47.5
Guatemala.....	3,087	4,070	+31.4
El Salvador.....	2,320	3,134	+35.0
Honduras.....	5,030	6,028	+19.8
Nicaragua.....	2,096	2,503	+19.4
Costa Rica.....	2,424	3,141	+29.5
Panama.....	15,887	18,820	+18.4
Cuba.....	25,093	45,355	+80.7
Dominican Republic.....	5,520	5,844	+5.8
Haiti.....	3,595	3,436	-4.4
North American Republics.....	102,583	147,687	+43.9
Argentina.....	36,927	42,686	+15.5
Bolivia ¹	2,629	5,117	+94.6
Brazil.....	29,728	40,382	+35.8
Chile.....	5,321	12,029	+126.0
Colombia.....	14,754	21,943	+48.7
Ecuador.....	1,573	2,345	+49.0
Paraguay ¹	451	647	+43.4
Peru.....	4,985	9,767	+95.9
Uruguay.....	3,614	6,140	+69.8
Venezuela.....	13,115	19,286	+47.0
South American Republics.....	113,097	160,342	+41.7
Total Latin America.....	215,680	308,029	+42.8

¹ United States statistics credit commodities in considerable quantities imported from and exported to Bolivia and Paraguay via ports situated in neighboring countries, not to the Republics of Bolivia and Paraguay, but to the countries in which the ports of entry or departure are located.

ARGENTINE FOREIGN TRADE IN 1934

By MATILDA PHILLIPS

Chief, Statistical Division, Pan American Union

ACCORDING to the official statistics issued by the Director General of Statistics, the total foreign trade of Argentina, exclusive of bullion, increased from 2,017,990,441 paper pesos in 1933 to 2,547,961,413 paper pesos in 1934, that is, 26.3 percent. Compared with the previous year, imports increased 212,783,515 paper pesos, or 23.7 per cent, and exports 317,187,457 paper pesos, or 28.3 per cent.

Foreign trade in 1933 and 1934

[Real values]

	1933	1934
	<i>Paper pesos</i>	<i>Paper pesos</i>
Imports.....	897, 148, 929	1, 109, 932, 444
Exports.....	1, 120, 841, 512	1, 438, 028, 969
Total trade.....	2, 017, 990, 441	2, 547, 961, 413

The balance of trade in favor of the Republic for the year 1934 was 328,096,525 paper pesos, an increase in the balance as compared with the preceding year of 104,403,942 paper pesos, the balance for 1933 being 223,692,583 paper pesos.

On a tonnage basis, imports, amounting to 7,360,911 metric tons, increased by 6.2 per cent over the previous year, and exports, aggregating 15,248,775 metric tons, gained by 10.7 per cent.

In the report of the Director General certain of the statistics are stated in terms of arbitrary or "tariff" values, while others are given in "real" or market values (in part based on declarations). Imports by countries and by commodities are stated in tariff values; real values are shown for the total trade and for all exports.

IMPORTS

The imports in 1933 and 1934, by principal countries of origin, were:

Imports by countries of origin for the years 1933 and 1934

[Values in thousands of paper pesos, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	Tariff values		Percent of total	
	1933	1934	1933	1934
United Kingdom.....	208, 271	230, 330	21. 4	22. 5
United States.....	123, 287	151, 824	12. 7	14. 8
Germany.....	104, 491	99, 356	10. 8	9. 7
Italy.....	87, 837	63, 591	9. 0	6. 2
France.....	49, 601	51, 221	5. 1	5. 0
Belgium.....	37, 222	50, 887	3. 8	5. 0
Brazil.....	53, 865	49, 671	5. 5	4. 8
India.....	52, 687	48, 383	5. 4	4. 7
Japan.....	22, 230	22, 898	2. 3	2. 2
Spain.....	24, 675	21, 003	2. 5	2. 2
Canada.....	11, 447	20, 644	1. 2	2. 0
Netherland possessions in Central America.....	6, 892	20, 067	. 7	1. 9
Peru.....	19, 393	19, 285	2. 0	1. 9
British possessions in Asia, excluding India and Ceylon.....	11, 481	17, 992	1. 2	1. 8
Netherlands.....	16, 200	17, 644	1. 7	1. 7
Sweden.....	14, 750	14, 205	1. 5	1. 4
Czechoslovakia.....	8, 161	12, 799	. 8	1. 2
Finland.....	10, 222	11, 184	1. 1	1. 1
Russia.....	6, 950	10, 282	. 7	1. 0
Mexico.....	6, 999	8, 898	. 7	. 8
Paraguay.....	11, 837	7, 979	1. 2	. 8
Venezuela.....	14, 185	3, 789	1. 5	. 4
Other countries.....	68, 902	71, 018	7. 2	6. 9
Total imports.....	971, 495	1, 024, 950	100. 0	100. 0

The quantity and value of the various classes of commodities imported during the year 1934, with comparative figures for 1933, follow:

Imports by major classifications for the years 1933 and 1934

[Values in thousands of paper pesos, i. e., 000 omitted]

Classifications	Quantity, metric tons		Difference in 1934	Tariff values		Difference in 1934
	1933	1934		1933	1934	
			<i>Percent</i>			<i>Percent</i>
Alimentary substances.....	355, 604	261, 643	-26. 4	108, 624	81, 051	-25. 4
Tobacco and manufactures.....	11, 469	10, 155	-11. 4	16, 933	15, 096	-10. 9
Beverages.....	8, 115	5, 567	-31. 4	3, 917	2, 846	-27. 4
Textiles and manufactures.....	180, 843	185, 210	+2. 4	275, 404	275, 668	+0. 1
Chemicals and drugs, oils and paints.....	165, 899	172, 072	+3. 7	71, 126	72, 112	+1. 4
Paper, cardboard, and manufactures.....	179, 863	203, 848	+13. 3	52, 855	57, 929	+9. 6
Wood and manufactures.....	361, 523	395, 628	+9. 4	36, 280	39, 638	+9. 3
Iron and steel and manufactures.....	457, 014	558, 680	+22. 2	89, 014	102, 799	+15. 5
Machinery and vehicles.....	53, 374	81, 391	+52. 5	36, 477	60, 696	+66. 4
Metals (excluding iron).....	76, 494	94, 444	+23. 5	39, 929	46, 252	+15. 8
Stones, earths, glass, and ceramics.....	1, 572, 883	1, 422, 965	-9. 5	31, 756	31, 709	-0. 1
Fuel and lubricants.....	3, 470, 212	3, 925, 246	+13. 1	138, 210	161, 708	+17. 0
Rubber and manufactures.....	8, 330	10, 013	+20. 2	26, 079	31, 975	+22. 6
Miscellaneous.....	29, 809	34, 049	+14. 2	44, 891	45, 471	+1. 3
Total imports.....	6, 931, 432	7, 360, 911	+6. 2	971, 495	1, 024, 950	+5. 5

EXPORTS

The exports by principal countries of destination in 1933 and 1934, were:

Exports by countries of destination for the years 1933 and 1934

[Values in thousands of paper pesos, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	Real values		Percent of total	
	1933	1934 ¹	1933	1934
United Kingdom.....	410,993	500,254	36.8	34.8
Netherlands.....	107,975	134,635	9.6	9.4
Belgium.....	113,651	127,092	10.2	8.8
Germany.....	85,998	115,908	7.7	8.1
France.....	71,661	73,797	6.4	5.1
United States.....	87,432	72,634	7.8	5.1
Brazil.....	48,986	59,390	4.4	4.1
Italy.....	44,110	54,372	3.9	3.8
Denmark.....	12,075	16,910	1.1	1.2
Sweden.....	17,880	12,368	1.6	.9
Paraguay.....	7,657	12,019	.7	.8
Norway.....	12,724	11,255	1.1	.8
Spain.....	8,653	10,995	.8	.8
Uruguay.....	13,043	8,745	1.2	.6
Greece.....	12,823	8,326	1.1	.6
Poland.....	3,884	8,093	.3	.6
Canada.....	6,153	8,078	.5	.6
Japan.....	5,003	6,485	.4	.5
Irish Free State.....	7,569	6,452	.7	.4
Chile.....	7,675	6,347	.7	.4
Czechoslovakia.....	218	6,401	(²)	.4
China.....	9,051	5,512	.8	.4
Russia.....	950	3,902	.1	.3
Mexico.....	163	1,513	(²)	.1
On orders.....	532	² 135,805	(²)	9.3
Other countries.....	23,980	30,741	2.1	2.1
Total exports.....	1,120,842	1,438,029	100.0	100.0

¹ Provisional figures.

² Figure represents "on orders" for November and December, not yet apportioned to countries of destination.

³ Less than one-tenth of one percent.

The quantity and value of exports by groups of products for the years 1933 and 1934, and the per cent change, are given in the following table:

Exports by major classifications for the years 1933 and 1934

(Values in thousands of paper pesos, i. e., 000 omitted)

Classifications	Quantity, metric tons		Differ- ence in 1934	Real values		Differ- ence in 1934
	1933	1934		1933	1934	
Livestock products.....	1,151,424	1,084,157	Per cent -5.8	417,200	464,007	Per cent +11.2
Live animals.....	39,962	61,534	+54.0	4,324	8,135	+88.1
Meat.....	561,231	559,742	-3	182,011	200,688	+10.3
Hides.....	159,325	145,805	-8.5	80,775	82,009	+1.5
Wool.....	158,729	110,845	-30.2	93,852	119,058	+26.9
Dairy products.....	38,074	30,219	-20.6	20,615	16,632	-19.3
Offal and by-products.....	194,103	175,982	-9.3	35,623	37,485	+5.2
Agricultural products.....	12,094,484	13,586,943	+12.3	647,132	893,580	+38.1
Cereals and linseed.....	11,442,252	12,823,753	+12.1	602,612	825,748	+37.0
Wheat flour and middlings.....	468,069	516,364	+10.3	21,995	29,702	+35.0
Other agricultural products.....	184,163	246,826	+34.0	22,525	38,130	+69.3
Forest products.....	327,441	356,910	+9.0	33,435	42,432	+26.9
Mineral products.....	143,872	140,568	-2.3	5,890	7,653	+29.9
Hunting and fishing.....	544	898	+65.1	3,010	6,440	+114.0
Miscellaneous.....	58,842	79,299	+34.8	14,175	23,917	+68.7
Total exports.....	13,776,607	15,248,775	+10.7	1,120,842	1,438,029	+28.3

SUMMARY OF ARCHAEOLOGICAL WORK IN THE AMERICAS 1931-1932-1933

III. NORTH AMERICA

PART II¹

By CARL E. GUTHE, Ph. D.

Director, Museum of Anthropology, University of Michigan; Chairman, Committee on State Archaeological Surveys, National Research Council

THE eastern peripheral portion of the Southwest is to be found to the south and east of central New Mexico along the tributaries and lower reaches of the Rio Grande. In 1931 the Laboratory of Anthropology continued the reconnaissance and excavations begun in 1930 in the Guadalupe Mountains of southeastern New Mexico, finding additional data on the so-called Basket Maker culture in several caves in this region. Throughout the three-year period under discussion, the Museum of the University of Pennsylvania has sent Edgar B. Howard to this region. In addition to the evidence bearing on the antiquity of man in America, discussed earlier in this article, typical artifacts and several burials of an early Basket Maker culture were encountered during the 1931 and 1932 seasons in a cave on the east slopes of the Guadalupe Mountains about 50 miles west of Carlsbad.

Remains of Basket Maker types of cultures, apparently related to the Southwest, occur farther south and east in western Texas in the region of the Big Bend of the Rio Grande. In 1931 and 1932 Frank M. Setzler, of the United States National Museum, excavated several caves in this region and obtained a good representative series of corn, beads, baskets, matting, and fibers, but no pottery. During these two years, the Gila Pueblo of Globe, Arizona, maintained a survey party in this area. During the first season, after studying the eastern slopes of the Guadalupe Range in New Mexico, the region between the Pecos and the Rio Grande Rivers in west Texas was examined. During the second season this work was completed and supplemented by excavations in a number of caves and mounds of the region.

¹ The first half of Part III was published in the February issue of the BULLETIN. Parts I and II, on South America and Middle America, which were written by S. K. Lothrop and Frans Blom, respectively, appeared in the November and December, 1934, issues.

The West Texas Historical and Scientific Society has continued its archaeological survey of the Big Bend region, the records of which now contain locations of more than 200 mapped sites. During 1932 and 1933, this Society, under the leadership of Victor J. Smith, has carried on excavations in a number of rock shelter and cave sites, from which further data on the cultures of this region were obtained. At the eastern end of this area, in the vicinity of the mouth of the Pecos River, the University of Texas in 1932 excavated an extensive rock shelter, which yielded an interesting collection of vegetal materials. The following year, George C. Martin, working in the interests of the Witte Memorial Museum of San Antonio, studied several caves in the same region, recovering a complete representation of what has been styled the "Big Bend Basket-maker Culture" because of the similarity it bears to the apparently earlier Basket Maker cultures of New Mexico and Arizona. In 1933, Frank M. Setzler, of the United States National Museum, also worked in this region excavating two caves near the Pecos River. He found that numerous similarities and a few variations are significant when a comparison is made between the cultural material from these caves and those farther west, dug in the previous seasons. The most important variation is the absence of any evidence of corn in either of these two caves, which was rather surprising since there were such large quantities of corn cobs farther west.

The Great Plains.—It is becoming more and more difficult to treat the Great Plains area as a separate archaeological province, because of the increasing evidence of influences from surrounding areas which is being disclosed. In the caves and rock shelters of western Texas are found the records of a culture similar to early Southwestern cultures. Farther north, in the Texas Panhandle, the Texas Technological College has studied two sites during 1931 and 1932. The first of these near Amarillo was found to contain masonry rooms, in the walls of some of which the stones were set on edge, while in others they were laid flat. The second ruin near Tascosa contained 33 rooms of different sizes. The walls were of slab-stone construction and varied in thickness from one to four feet. Many potsherds and articles of stone and bone were secured. Two dozen intrusive sherds indicated that the site was inhabited during the Glaze I period of the Rio Grande Pueblo culture. A somewhat similar condition is found in the Oklahoma Panhandle. Following a survey in 1932, the University of Oklahoma excavated a site near Optima which contained rectangular and circular rooms, the remnants of the walls of which were a single row of caliche slabs. Stone-walled entrance passages faced the east. The articles recovered included cord-marked sand tempered pottery, stone implements, and a rather unusual number of bone tools.

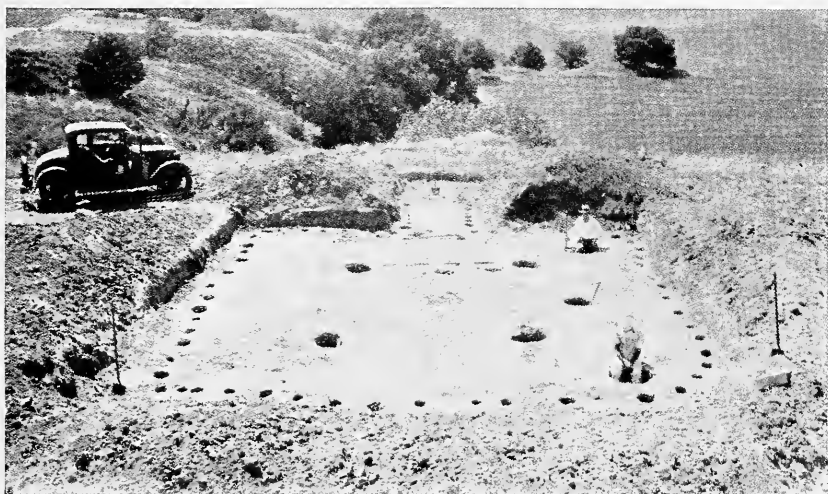
In central and southern Texas are found the remains of more individual cultures. Cyrus N. Ray, of the Texas Archaeological and Paleontological Society, has continued, throughout the three years under discussion, the study of the region about Abilene. Additional records have been secured of deeply buried stratified sites, in one of which a hearth was found covered by five feet of horizontally stratified clays. Round and oval types of bedrock mortar-holes which occur in groups, have been found over a large area. Within a radius of 50 miles of Abilene, a number of mound burials have been found placed in graves lined with stone slabs. The flexed skeletons which they contain are those of long-headed individuals who are said to represent very pure examples of one of the earlier strata of the American population.

The University of Texas continued its investigations along the Texas coast during the seasons of 1932 and 1933. One of the largest mounds of the State, 18 feet high, was trenched across the narrow diameter and revealed bundle burials, but very little pottery. This mound seems completely isolated, being the only known one on the coast, 300 miles from the nearest mounds to the north, and 400 from the nearest to the south. Considerable work was done in the middens near Galveston, Corpus Christi and Goliad. Two types of cultures were disclosed; an older, cruder one involving the use of large numbers of *Bulimus* snails and containing little or no pottery, and a later one existing until historic times, showing less evidence of snail eating and containing large quantities of potsherds.

It is possible that the unique characteristics of these central and southern Texas cultures may be attributed in part to the absence of great rivers which might have acted as highways for intercourse with cultures of other regions. Farther north, the Great Plains are crossed by the western tributaries of the Mississippi. It has already been noted that cord-marked pottery similar to that found in the eastern United States has been found in western Oklahoma. Similar sherds have been found by E. B. Renaud in Colorado during the prosecution of his Archaeological Survey of the High Western Plains, which has been continued during the past three years. In addition to recording the wide distribution of Folsom and Yuma points referred to above, Renaud found in caves and rock shelters of the Arkansas basin in southeastern Colorado, coiled basketry, sandals, and other objects comparable to those found under similar conditions to the south and the west of this region. In 1931 and 1932, many sites were located in northeastern Colorado in the South Platte basin. In 1931 this survey was extended to include southeastern Wyoming, during which some 200 sites were visited. A long reconnaissance trip was taken, covering the northeastern part of this State. In 1932 and 1933, western Nebraska was included in this survey. Many

sites were recorded, two of which were partly excavated. This survey has revealed in the several States the existence of many camp sites, rock shelters and mesa top sites, from which stone artifacts and potsherds have been gathered.

In 1931, the Archaeological Survey of Nebraska, inaugurated by W. D. Strong in 1930, excavated a number of historic, protohistoric, and prehistoric village sites in central and southern Nebraska. It showed that the ceramic art was highly developed throughout this area, but deteriorated rapidly with the advent of the horse. Apparently a Caddoan or proto-Pawnee group had been dominant in this portion of Nebraska at least, for several centuries and became con-



Courtesy of the Nebraska State Historical Society.

A PREHISTORIC SEMISUBTERRANEAN HOUSE.

Excavations at this site, in Frontier County, Nebraska, were carried on by the Nebraska State Historical Society. The dimensions of the house are 27 by 32 feet. The outer wall posts and the four center ones may be clearly seen; on the north side of the house, whose entrance faces the west, are three clearly defined cache pits.

finied to a restricted habitat only in comparatively recent years. In 1932, Strong, now with the Bureau of American Ethnology, found that the upper layer of the deposits at Signal Butte contained cultural material similar to that of the prehistoric Upper Republican culture characterized the previous season. Earl H. Bell, of the University of Nebraska, has carried the Archaeological Survey forward in both the western and central part of the State during 1932 and 1933. A. T. Hill, now in charge of the museum of the Nebraska State Historical Society, has continued this institution's share in the survey by directing the excavation in 1933 of 10 prehistoric earth lodges in the central and southwestern part of the State. The tentative conclusions of 1931 have been strengthened and amplified during the

past two years. Several cultures have been characterized on the basis of variation of implements of stone and bone, differences of pottery types, and detailed changes in the construction of the earth lodges. The affiliations of Nebraska cultures are clearly with those lying to the south and east in the Mississippi Valley.

During the latter part of the 1932 field season the Bureau of American Ethnology sent a field party, which included four field scholars from the Laboratory of Anthropology at Santa Fe, under the direction of W. D. Strong, to examine sites in South Dakota. About 12 sites were studied, some of which appeared to be of Mandan origin. Extensive excavations were made in one of the sites, an historic Arikara village visited by Lewis and Clark in 1804 and bombarded by General Leavenworth in 1823. Besides much native material illustrating practically all phases of Arikara life at the close of the 18th century, much evidence of early fur trade contacts was obtained. During this same season W. H. Over, of the University of South Dakota Museum, excavated a square earth lodge in a village site near Lebeau.

The State Historical Society of North Dakota continued its survey of archaeological sites of the State during 1931 and 1932. In the latter season airplane photographs were taken of the sites in the Missouri Valley. The third and final expedition from the Logan Museum of Beloit College to North Dakota, made an exhaustive survey, in 1931, of early Arikara and Mandan sites with special reference to pottery remains.

Eastern United States.—The field work accomplished during the past three years has made it increasingly evident that it is impossible to regard the northeastern part of the United States as an archaeological province distinct from the southeastern section. It is true that the southern cultures are, in general, more complex than the northern ones, yet the differences and similarities between them are so involved that it seems unlikely that the geographical location of cultures will have as great a significance as was formerly believed in the study of their historical relationships.

In the wooded area west of the lower reaches of the Mississippi River, S. C. Dellinger of the University of Arkansas has continued to assemble valuable records of the several cultures in his State. During the summers of 1931 and 1932, the rock shelters of the Ozark Mountains yielded agricultural products, basketry, bags and other perishable material which supplemented the records obtained by M. R. Harrington in that region several years ago. In 1931 representatives of the Bureau of American Ethnology explored a number of shelters, with similar results, in the vicinity of Bilbert, Arkansas. These Bluff Dwellers, whose cultures bear a close resemblance to similar groups in western Texas and the Southwest, were apparently followed

by peoples possessing a Great Plains culture. Throughout the three-year period, Dellinger also studied cemeteries and village sites near the Mississippi River in northeastern Arkansas. The cemeteries yielded a great variety of pottery objects, chiefly in the form of effigy jars and vessels with engraved designs. Nearby house mounds contained bundle burials and crude pottery of the purely utilitarian type. These people seem to have had some cultural associations with the urn burial people of Alabama and those at Moundville. During 1931 and 1932, expeditions from the Alabama Museum of Natural History obtained similar collections in this area. In 1933, Dellinger studied village sites a few miles farther west which contained remains of rectangular wattle-and-daub houses associated with extended burials.

Near the western limits of the trans-Mississippi wooded area, in eastern Texas, the University of Texas spent some time in each of the three years studying the remains of village sites and mounds. In some sites house foundations indicating wattle-and-daub structures were found. Many pottery vessels, stone artifacts, bone and shell ornaments, and other materials indicate that the affiliations of these cultures were chiefly with those to the north and east, but traces of southern and western influences were also discovered. In 1932 three important cemeteries and several small mounds and middens revealed evidences of European contacts, as well as Caddoan and Assanai materials. In 1933, Gila Pueblo of Globe, Arizona, extended its surveys to include a number of Caddo sites in eastern Texas.

Farther north, the University of Oklahoma, after two short seasons of survey work in 1931 and 1932, undertook the partial excavation of a group of mounds near Wagoner, in eastern Oklahoma. Small, triangular stone points, black incised pottery, stone pulley-shaped ear plugs, carved and sheathed with copper, and other evidences indicated cultural associations with the people who had formerly lived to the east and south in the lower Mississippi Valley.

Evidences of these trans-Mississippi cultures are also found in Louisiana. During 1931 and 1932, W. M. Walker, of the Bureau of American Ethnology, conducted an archaeological survey of the northern part of that State, and carried on excavations at Jonesville in the remains of buildings laid bare at the base of a flat mound which was being removed for use in road building operations. In the fall of 1933, a government expedition, under the direction of Frank M. Setzler, encountered spectacular and important evidence during the excavation of a mound group and village site at Marksville, Louisiana. The remains of a rectangular semi-subterranean house were found in the village site, which was strewn with pottery and stone artifacts similar to those found in the northern Hopewell mounds. Traces of twelve burials with a few accompanying earthenware offerings were

obtained from the mounds. One of these vessels is of particular importance because upon it are two patterns of decoration, one of which is clearly Hopewell in character. The data obtained at Marksville give definite proof that the people who lived and built the mounds on this site were closely allied culturally to the Hopewell people of the northern Mississippi Valley. Because of variations, however, especially in the mode of burial and the lack of certain northern traits, this culture should be considered a southeastern variant.

East of the Mississippi River the most active archaeological groups in the southern States are to be found in Mississippi and Alabama. During the three-year period covered by this report the Mississippi Department of Archives and History, with the cooperation of the Smithsonian Institution, carried forward the archaeological survey of the State begun in 1929. In 1931 a study was made of village sites in the neighborhood of the city of Natchez. The following year a survey of the drainage of the Big Black and the Yazoo-Big Sunflower



Courtesy of U. S. National Museum.

VESSEL FROM MOUND 4, MARKSVILLE WORKS, EXCAVATED IN 1933.

This is number 369002 in the collection of the United States National Museum.

river system supplied records of 146 mounds and 53 village sites, two of which were partly excavated. In 1933 the survey was extended to the Gulf Coast and the valley of the Pearl River.

Throughout the current three-year period the members of the Alabama Anthropological Society have continued their investigations of village sites and cemeteries in the valleys of the Coosa, Tallapoosa and Upper Alabama rivers. In some sites the foundations of houses have been encountered. In addition to the urn-burials, there have also been found many burials of an historic nature, for European trade articles occur with the skeletons. The Alabama Museum of Natural History has devoted a part of each season to further investigations at Moundville, which became the property of the museum in 1930. Excavations were also undertaken in a number of smaller sites, including some rock shelters, in the Tennessee and Warrior River Valleys. In July, 1931, the museum began a systematic archaeological survey of the State. This was continued in 1933 with the aid of a

grant from the National Research Council. That part of the Tennessee valley which lies in Alabama was completely surveyed, and the reconnaissance of the Warrior River Valley and the Gulf Coast was about three-fourths completed. An aboriginal canal three-fourths of a mile long was found to connect Oyster Bay and Little Lagoon, thereby enabling the Indians to reach the Mobile Delta easily from the Gulf by taking advantage of the natural protection of the moderately high bluffs along the eastern shore of Mobile Bay.

In January, 1931, M. W. Stirling, of the Bureau of American Ethnology, made an archaeological tour through the southern States. He visited the vicinity of High Point, North Carolina, two sites on the Tennessee River in northern Alabama, and other sites farther south in that State which were being studied by the Alabama Anthropological Society. After inspecting a number of sites in Florida, he undertook a series of excavations on Blue Hill Island, south of



Courtesy of U. S. National Museum.

VESSEL FROM MOUND 8, MARKSVILLE WORKS, LOUISIANA.

This is number 331688 in the collection of the United States National Museum.

Key Marco. In a large sand burial mound, of early post-Columbian Calusa origin, a clay floor was found, apparently the base of a temple structure. This structure had subsequently been destroyed, and the mound enlarged by the addition of six feet more of sand. Articles of European manufacture accompanied burials above the floor, but were absent from those in the lower horizon. Later in the spring Stirling discovered an interesting series of geometric earthworks on the eastern side of the Everglades, not far from Indiantown.

The Department of Anthropology of Yale University inaugurated a study of the Caribbean area in 1933. As a part of the field work of this project, a brief survey was made of archaeological sites on the west coast of Florida, and of the mounds on the islands of the Okefenokee Swamp in southern Georgia. Three sand burial mounds were excavated in the latter area. These proved poor in material content, containing potsherds and a limited amount of skeletal material.

In the spring of 1932, Phillips Academy of Andover, Massachusetts, sent W. K. Moorehead through seven southern States, visiting scenes of archaeological exploration and ancient sites. The following year he represented the same institution in a joint expedition with the Charleston, South Carolina, Museum in the study of Indian sites in Beaufort County, South Carolina. A burial mound and one village site were excavated, and a complete survey of the region was made. The Charleston Museum has undertaken an organized survey of the aboriginal sites in the State.

In the Middle Mississippi Valley, the East Tennessee Archaeological Society continued, in 1931 and 1932, its study of mounds, village sites, and several rock shelters in the upper Tennessee Valley. The University of Kentucky devoted the summer of 1931 to completing the archaeological survey of the State which had been in progress for the past six years. Many new sites were discovered, additional information was procured about previously known sites, and a number were located where it was thought excavations would prove fruitful. The field seasons of 1932 and 1933 were devoted to investigating a small site in western Kentucky, and to studying several rock shelters and caves.

In the northern Mississippi Valley, continued prosecution of field work has materially aided the study of archaeological problems, in spite of the fact that two institutions were forced to suspend field operations. During the early summer of 1931, the University of Illinois continued the investigations begun in 1930 in the Utica-Starved Rock region of Illinois. Excavations were carried out in a number of sites near the original Plum Island site. At Henry, Illinois, 15 miles west of Utica, a mound was trenched, disclosing a culture strikingly different from that encountered near Utica. During the latter part of the summer the field parties were moved to Jackson County in southern Illinois, where mounds, village sites, bluff burials, stone cist graves, and pictographs were found in close association. The cultural features of the Tennessee-Cumberland region predominate in this part of the State. At the close of the year excavations were made in a mound site of the Cahokia group near East St. Louis. Underneath the mound large circular depressions, which may be house-pits, yielded a remarkably fine collection of Cahokia pottery. During 1932, the last season of field work by the University of Illinois, restricted funds permitted only occasional reconnaissance trips in the vicinity of Urbana and to the valley of the Sangoman.

The field work of the University of Chicago during 1931 and 1932 centered around Lewistown, where the intensive archaeological survey of Fulton County was completed at the close of the latter season. Preliminary surveys were carried forward in at least five other coun-

ties. That of Rock Island County was completed in 1933. In Jo Davies County, in the northwestern corner of the State, village site excavations revealed several cultural aspects related to the Wisconsin cultures on the one hand, and to those of central Illinois on the other. A series of major excavations in mounds and village sites in Fulton County verified the conclusions of previous years and furnished data for a tentative chronology of four cultures in central Illinois. Additional information was secured on the Illinois variant of the Hopewell culture. Several stratified sites furnished evidence to show that the Middle Mississippi culture was a recent prehistoric one in this area, having been preceded by a Woodland culture, and by the Hopewell people. Rectangular pit houses, arranged in groups, were discovered in six locations and seem to be identified directly with the Middle Mississippi culture. In 1933, the University of Chicago excavated an extensive site in the southeastern part of Fulton County. It consisted of a village, a large mound, probably a dwelling or temple base, and a cemetery with several small domed mounds. All remains except the smaller mounds appeared to belong to the Middle Mississippi phase, while the tumuli appeared to be Woodland in character. Observations were made during the destruction by a gravel company of the large Kingston Lake mound in Peoria County by hydraulic mining. The mound, located on the lowland only a few feet above the water in the midst of a related Middle Mississippi village, proved to have been a truncated pyramid with at least four, and possibly five, levels of occupation.

North of Illinois, the Milwaukee Public Museum sent an expedition into Grant County, Wisconsin, in the summer of 1931. Eighteen mounds of an effigy group and two conical mounds of unclassified culture origin were excavated. An unusually large quantity of skeletal material was secured, derived for the most part from a single reburial of disarticulated bones representing 35 individuals. This institution also excavated an old Winnebago village site on the shores of Lake Winnebago. A detailed study of the large collections obtained will contribute greatly toward establishing the culture status of the prehistoric Winnebago. Because of economic conditions, no field work was done by this institution during 1932 and 1933. Throughout the three years covered by this report, the State Historical Museum of Wisconsin, and the members of the Wisconsin Archeological Society, under the Leadership of Charles E. Brown, have continued to prosecute archaeological surveys in several parts of the State, and have undertaken minor excavations in village sites, mounds, and quarries in a number of localities.

To the west, across the Mississippi River, the State Historical Society of Iowa has continued to sponsor the study of the archaeology

of that State by Charles R. Keyes. Short field trips during the summers of all three years, and continued correspondence with many local observers, have greatly increased the knowledge of the several Iowa cultures, particularly the Woodland cultures which are related to those found in Illinois and Wisconsin; the Oneota culture of the north-eastern part of the State, which appears to be protohistoric Siouan; and the Glenwood, a local earth lodge bluff culture which bears certain affinities to remains found in eastern Nebraska.

In addition to the work done at the site of the discovery of "Minnesota Man", the archaeological field parties from the University of Minnesota spent a month during 1932 excavating a village site on Blackduck Lake in northern Minnesota, located at a portage on a famous fur-trading water route. A quantity of pottery was obtained of a type which is distributed over much of northern Minnesota and westward into North Dakota. A week at the end of the season was devoted to excavating a low mound near the confluence of the Big Pine River and the Mississippi in central Minnesota. A few burials of dismembered and charred skeletons within one and a half feet of the surface were found at its very center. During the field season of 1933 a number of short projects were undertaken. A farm reconnaissance was made of the area near Glacial Lake Pelican for further evidence of ancient man. A good collection of artifacts was secured during the excavation of a prehistoric Siouan village near the outlet of Lake Mille Lacs. The examination of a large mound on Rainy River revealed 100 bundle burials, with indisputable evidences of cannibalism. There were also a few primary burials and important artifacts including four pottery vessels. The reported existence of ivory artifacts in the Red River Valley of North Dakota was confirmed, and unexpectedly, copper and ivory artifacts were found associated in the same mound. In Harding County of South Dakota, the skeleton belonging to a skull previously sent to the university was obtained.

The attack upon the complex archaeological problems of the Ohio Valley and the Great Lakes region was carried forward by the field work of several institutions. The systematic State archaeological survey begun in 1928 under the auspices of the Indiana Historical Bureau was continued during the seasons of 1931 and 1932 by Glenn A. Black, in the valley of the White River, where a large number of mounds, villages, trails, forts, workshops, and some rock shelters were located. The survey proper was supplemented by excavations in two village sites associated with mound groups. Sufficient evidence was obtained to relate the builders of the mounds to the occupants of the village sites. The large collections from the village sites are distinctly Woodland in character. The culture traits exhibited by the

artifacts from the mounds, the features found in the mounds excavated, and materials obtained from a previously destroyed nearby mound, all point toward a strong Hopewell influence. In 1931 another field party sent out by the Indiana Historical Bureau undertook a survey of Porter County in northern Indiana, finding little remaining evidence of reported sites. An earthwork of two low concentric embankments, roughly semicircular, was studied. Seven mound sites were located. Both Hopewell and Woodland materials were found. During the field season of 1933, the Indiana Historical Bureau and the Indiana Historical Society placed two parties in the field. Glenn A. Black made a survey of the southeastern section of the State along the Ohio River. Additional stone mounds, similar to those found in previous seasons, were located and two were excavated. Village sites and mounds of the Mississippi culture were found on the Ohio River terraces and along tributary streams, while mounds to the number of 110 were found on hill tops overlooking the valleys. Evidences of both Woodland and Mississippi cultures were secured. E. Y. Guernsey carried on an archaeological survey of Clark County, during which 136 sites, including some stone mounds, were investigated and surface collections made.

The Ohio Archaeological and Historical Society conducted minor field operations throughout the three year period covered by this report. In 1931, a village site near Huron in northeastern Ohio was studied. It was interesting because it possessed both Iroquoian and Algonkian features, and was situated less than a mile from two Hopewell type mounds. In 1932 a number of sites in central and northern Ohio were studied. The field season of 1933 was divided between the excavation of a cave site, which gave little material, and the restoration of earthworks at Newark. The University of Michigan sponsored two field expeditions in 1931. One undertook reconnaissance trips in the western part of the Lower Peninsula and the eastern part of the northern peninsula of Michigan in order to verify reports of new sites and to visit local amateurs. The other excavated a small mound at Lake Gogebic in the Upper Peninsula, and studied two mound sites near Lake Michigan in the southern peninsula. The last of these revealed Hopewell type artifacts. During 1932 and 1933 short reconnaissance trips were taken to sites in southeastern Michigan.

Economic conditions curtailed archaeological field work in the northeastern States during the current three year period. In the spring of 1931, a group of students from Syracuse University, under the direction of Thorne Deuel, explored a village site near Cazenovia in western New York. The potsherds, stone implements, bone awls and charred corn which were found indicate that the site was late

16th century Iroquoian. The Rochester Museum of Arts and Sciences, which suspended field operations during 1931, sponsored the examination of Algonkian sites along the western end of Lake Ontario in 1932, which furnished a possible clue to the relation of the polished slate, semi-lunar knife people to the Algonkian culture. During the field season of 1933, W. A. Ritchie of this museum made a number of valuable finds in the Genesee region, including the discovery of a precontact burial site in which a number of skeletons revealed fractures and other osseous lesions of great interest to physicians. Apparently two or more stocks with rather distinctive skeletal characteristics amalgamated to produce the aborigines of later times. This seems especially true of the Iroquois.

Donald A. Cadzow, of the Pennsylvania State Historical Commission, devoted the field season of 1931 to completing the work begun in 1930 near Safe Harbor, on the lower Susquehanna River. A total of 188 plaster moulds, together with charts, scale models, and photographic records of the prehistoric rock carvings, were moved to the State Museum in Harrisburg. Sixty-eight of the groups of figures were drilled out of the river bed and carried to the museum. The islands upon which they were found are now covered by 40 feet of water. The search for a mainland occupation contemporaneous with the first and second period petroglyphs was continued. During 1930 and 1931, the expedition explored and recorded data on one prehistoric Algonkian site and one prehistoric and two historic Iroquoian sites. No field work has been reported by this commission for the years 1932 and 1933. In addition to several pieces of field work done by groups of members of the Society for Pennsylvania Archaeology in various parts of the State during 1931, the Tioga Point Museum sponsored, during that year, two months of field work in the upper Susquehanna Valley. An historic Delaware village site, an Algonkian camp site, and a part of an Iroquoian burial ground were studied.

In August of 1933, a field party from the Tioga Point Museum at Athens, Pennsylvania, discovered and partially excavated the closely-set post holes of a roughly rectangular enclosure situated at the base of Spanish Hill. Test holes within the enclosure disclosed fireplaces and refuse pits, and at least one lodge site was located by its post holes. Just outside the south line of the enclosure, an apparent ceremonial effigy platform representing some horned animal was completely uncovered. It is nine feet long by seven feet wide, and consists of a single layer of fire-cracked and reddened stones. In the refuse pits of the site were found cord-marked, grit-tempered sherds, triangular and notched arrow points, and chips of flint, rhyolite, and argillite.

Along the northern Atlantic coastal plain there has been an increase in archaeological field work during the past three years. The New

Jersey State Museum, in cooperation with the University of Pennsylvania Museum, examined two rock shelters in Sussex County, New Jersey, in 1931. The deposits, within the shelters and in the talus, indicated intermittent occupation over a considerable period. One shelter contained no articles of European manufacture, while the other revealed a few European trade articles. The first was probably occupied by Delaware Indians, particularly the Munsee. In 1932, members of the Archaeological Society of New Jersey found an unusually elaborate Indian burial on the bank of the Delaware River in Warren County. The following year another member of this society excavated a number of burials and several interesting storage pits in a Munsee village site a few miles south of Port Jervis, New York. At another site three dog burials were encountered.

The members of the Long Island Chapter of the New York State Archaeological Association have continued throughout the past three years their investigations of village sites and cemeteries on Long Island. In 1931 the excavation of the village site at Noyack, Southampton, was completed. Sites have been examined at Montauk, at Riverhead, at Peconic Bay, Southampton, and along Wilson's Creek, Aquebogue. At Southampton, distinct from but closely adjacent to graves, pits of unusual depth were encountered at the bottoms of which were crushed but restorable pots of well-made Algonkian ware. Among the burials along Wilson's Creek was an ossuary containing 11 skeletons, one of which, in normal flexed position, was superposed eight inches above the others, which were evidently reburials.

In 1931 the Department of Anthropology, Peabody Museum of Yale University, inaugurated an archaeological survey of Connecticut. Each season excavations were undertaken in village sites, caves, rock shelters, and shell heaps. Since a great deal of work has already been done by local students, an important part of the survey consists of recording and correlating the data and collections in private hands. During the season of 1931, Phillips Academy in Andover, Massachusetts, carried on excavations in a site on Cape Cod.

This brief and necessarily complex review of the archaeological work done by many institutions during three years serves to emphasize the diversity of problems in North American archaeology and the catholicity of interests of the institutions studying them. Superficially it would seem that such conditions might lead to provincialism and confusion. Actually the attitude of cooperative attack upon the single great problem of interpreting the history of the North American Indians has been growing steadily among archaeologists, and steps have been taken to insure contacts and exchange of views among students.

The distribution of published reports and the local, sectional, and national meetings of various learned societies have brought many students together. These facilities have been supplemented by a number of special conferences. In the spring of 1930 and again early in 1931, Gila Pueblo at Globe, Arizona, called informal conferences of southwestern archaeologists to discuss mutual problems. At the time of the formal opening of the Laboratory of Anthropology at Santa Fe early in September 1931 a three day conference on southwestern archaeological problems was held, which was recognized as a continuation of the successful Pecos conferences of 1927 and 1929. Economic conditions prevented a similar conference in 1933.

In the eastern United States the National Research Council sponsored two conferences of interest to archaeologists. A Conference on the Discovery and Preservation of Pleistocene Man was held in Chicago in April 1931, and a Conference on Southern Prehistory was called in Birmingham, Alabama, in December 1932. A group of archaeologists working in the northern Great Plains met together in the early fall of 1931, in Vermillion, South Dakota, to discuss mutual problems. A second Great Plains Conference was held the following year in Lincoln, Nebraska, at which time plans were laid for holding this conference biennially. A similar movement was inaugurated by a group of students in the north-eastern States, which resulted in a preliminary gathering at Trenton, New Jersey, in the spring of 1933.

Another fruitful means of stimulating interest in general problems is a group of projects which depend upon a number of institutions. The field training courses in archaeology, established by the Laboratory of Anthropology at Santa Fe, enable graduate students who have been awarded the scholarships to secure field experience under professional archaeologists. During the three years under discussion, 12 such students from 10 universities worked in eastern Arizona during 1931 and 1933, and in Nebraska and South Dakota in 1932. Another project of this nature is the survey of southwestern archaeological sites carried on jointly by Gila Pueblo, the Museum of Northern Arizona, and the Laboratory of Anthropology at Santa Fe. In the eastern United States, the Pictorial Survey, begun by the University of Chicago several years ago, has been expanded to include the entire area. Its success is due to the help given the representative of the survey by the many institutions he has visited during the past three years. The Ceramic Repository for the Eastern United States and the Ethnobotanical Laboratory, established at the University of Michigan several years ago as special laboratories, have continued to receive from many institutions the support which is essential to the research undertaken by their staffs.

The results of the research of two individuals have had a strong influence upon the study of general problems. Dr. A. E. Douglass' discoveries concerning tree rings has given rise to dendrochronological research which, under his indefatigable leadership, has been supported by southwestern archaeologists generally and has been of great value in clarifying the chronological problems of that region. In 1932, W. C. McKern, of the Milwaukee Public Museum, as a result of his experience with Wisconsin archaeological problems, proposed a classificatory or taxonomic method of designating various types of cultures. The suggestion has aroused a great deal of interest and valuable discussion. It has been tentatively accepted by a sufficient number of archaeologists to insure a thorough trial for it.

The Committee on State Archaeological Surveys of the National Research Council, which seeks to act as a clearing house for North American archaeology, continues to enjoy the good will of the many organizations interested in this field. The present report has been made possible only because the committee office continues to receive annual statements of the work accomplished by nearly all archaeological students working on this continent.

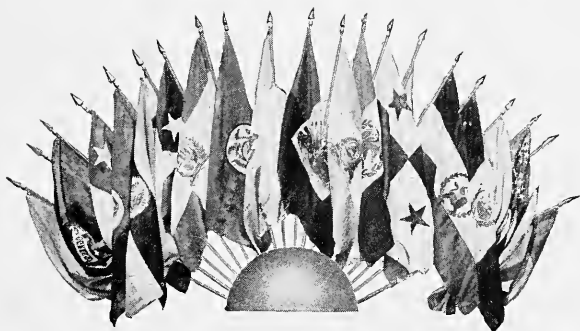




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SIGNING THE TRADE AGREEMENT BETWEEN BRAZIL AND THE UNITED STATES.

With President Roosevelt witnessing the signatures, the trade agreement between Brazil and the United States was signed February 2, 1935, by Dr. Oswaldo Aranha, the Brazilian Ambassador in Washington, and Secretary of State Cordell Hull. This is the first of a series of reciprocal trade pacts with other nations of Latin America for which negotiations are being conducted by the State Department. Seated at the President's desk are, from the left: Senhor Dr. Arthur de Souza Costa, Minister of Finance of Brazil; the Ambassador of Brazil; President Roosevelt; and Secretary Hull. Standing are: Hon. Sumner Welles, Assistant Secretary of State; Senhor Dr. Sebastião Sampaio, now Secretary to the President of Brazil; and Senhor Frederico de Magalhães, Technical Adviser of the Department of Finance of Brazil.



PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

Uniformity of powers of attorney.—At the meeting of the Governing Board held on February 6, 1935, the report of the committee of experts on uniformity of legislation on powers of attorney was approved and the Board authorized the transmittal of the report to the Governments, members of the Pan American Union. This was in accordance with a resolution of the Seventh International Conference of American States which met at Montevideo in December 1933.

Protection for historic monuments.—The report and the draft instrument of treaty on the protection of immovable monuments (Roerich Pact) were submitted by the chairman of the committee on the Roerich Pact and approved by the Governing Board. The instrument of treaty was submitted in the form in which it will be open to signature and deposit in the Pan American Union on April 15, 1935. The committee informed the Board that at the time of submitting the report the Governments of Panama, the United States, Uruguay, Guatemala, Ecuador, Brazil, and Nicaragua had granted plenipotentiary powers to their representatives on the Governing Board to subscribe to the pact on that date. The Government of Honduras, by a note submitted through its chargé d'affaires in Washington and dated July 24, 1934, had already accepted the treaty.

The centenary of Andrew Carnegie.—The Governing Board approved the report of the special committee entrusted with formulating the program of ceremonies with which the Pan American Union will associate itself in the commemoration of the centenary of the birth of Andrew Carnegie, November 25, 1935. Readers of the BULLETIN will remember that the beautiful building in which the Pan American Union has its headquarters was erected largely through the munificence of Mr. Carnegie.

PAN AMERICAN UNION EXPRESSES APPRECIATION TO SERVICE BANDS.

Resolutions of appreciation for their work in promoting closer cultural relations between the republics of the American Continent were recently presented to the leaders of the three service bands stationed in Washington in exercises held at the Pan American Union. Capt. William J. Stannard of the Army Band, Lieut. Charles Bentler of the Navy Band, and Capt. Taylor Branson of the Marine Band were the recipients of the engraved resolutions, which were presented on behalf of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union by Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General.

The resolutions recorded that the concerts presented at the Pan American Union in recent years have served to develop a broader knowledge of the music of the American Republics, thereby contributing to the promotion of closer cultural relations between the nations of the American Continent, and that the success of these concerts has been due in large measure to the efforts of the three conductors as leaders of their respective organizations and joint leaders of the United Service Orchestra, and concluded by expressing to each leader the sincere appreciation of the Governing Board for the valuable contribution to this important phase of the activities of the Pan American Union. The resolutions were signed by Secretary of State Hull as Chairman of the Governing Board of the Union.



Customs procedure, port formalities, and consular procedure.—In accordance with the resolution of the Seventh International Conference of American States relative to customs procedure and port formalities, a committee of experts was appointed by the Governing Board to study the matter. Upon presentation of the report to the Board on February 6, the following resolution was approved:

WHEREAS, The Committee of Experts on Customs Procedure, Port Formalities and Consular Procedure, appointed pursuant to the resolution of the Seventh International Conference of American States, has submitted its report;

WHEREAS, the report of the committee contains suggestions with respect to the action to be taken thereon,

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union,

RESOLVES:

1. To receive the report of the Committee of Experts on Customs Procedure, Port Formalities and Consular Procedure.

2. To authorize the Director General to transmit copies of the report to the Governments, members of the Union, through their representatives on the Board, and also to the organizing committee of the Pan American Commercial Conference at Buenos Aires.

3. To request the organizing committee of the Pan American Commercial Conference at Buenos Aires to submit the report to the consideration of the delegates of the American Republics there assembled, and to transmit to the Pan American Union the conclusions that may be reached by the delegates.

Congresses meeting in the Americas.—The Pan American Union has received the following information about official congresses and conferences scheduled to meet in American countries during 1935:

The Pan American Commercial Conference will convene in Buenos Aires on May 26, 1935.

The Second Inter-American Conference on Agriculture, scheduled to meet in Mexico during 1935, has been postponed until 1937.

It is expected that the *Seventh American Scientific Congress* will be held in Mexico City in September 1935. *The Inter-American Bibliographic Conference* and the *Inter-American Conference of Experts on Indian Life* will meet as sections of the congress.

The Third Pan American Red Cross Conference will meet in Rio de Janeiro on October 20, 1935.

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Among the new books recently received in the library are the following:

1880—*Cincuentenario de la federalización de Buenos Aires—1930*; comprende el proceso de su evolución histórica, política, económica y social. Buenos Aires [Talleres gráficos de Linari y cía., 1932] 343 p. illus., ports., tables. 31½ cm. [This is another "Golden Anniversary" volume, a complete historical and descriptive work on "la ciudad monumental", published on the occasion of celebrating the fiftieth anniversary of Buenos Aires as the Federal capital of the Argentine Republic. The historical material discusses the place of Buenos Aires in the history of the Republic and includes biographies of the Presidents of the Republic, and of the municipal intendents of Buenos Aires. The

descriptive data include names and histories of streets, means of communication, public buildings, parks, monuments, public markets, methods of civic improvement, welfare organizations and sources of amusements. In addition to the photographic reproductions there are many illustrations.]

Estudios y documentos para la historia del arte colonial [publicados por la] Universidad de Buenos Aires, Instituto de investigaciones históricas de la Facultad de filosofía y letras. Buenos Aires [S. A. Casa Jacobo Peuser lda.] 1934. v. I: 193 p. incl. 26 mounted plates. plates (diags.) 32½ cm. Contents: Arquitectura virreinal, por Martín S. Noel, seguida de una Adición documental, por José Torre Revello, y una advertencia por Emilio Ravignani. [The publication of this first volume of the history of Spanish colonial art will be welcomed by all students of the subject, who find publications on the period discussed by this book all too rare. Numerous duotone plates show interior and exterior details and plans.]

Legislação brasileira do trabalho [pelo] Bacharel em direito, C. J. Dunlop. Segundo edição (atualizada) Rio de Janeiro, Empreza Almanak Laemmert lda., 1934. 3 p.l., xxvii, 613 p. 23 cm. [This complete and up-to-date collection of labor laws of Brazil is classified according to subject, *e. g.*, accidents, hours, work of minors and of women, etc. Complete chronological and alphabetical indices furnish quick aids for finding any given law. The laws date from 1892 to July 1934, the later laws having been appended after the volume had gone to press, in order to make the collection complete.]

Apostilas de historia do Brasil [por] Max Fleiuss . . . Pôrto Alegre, Edição da Libreria do globo, Barcellos, Bertaso & cia., 1934. 3 p.l., [5]-459 p. plates, ports. 19 cm. [Max Fleiuss has written on many subjects in Brazilian history and has contributed to the *Revista do Instituto historico e geographico brasileiro* as a member of the institute. The first publication of these notes on Brazilian history was in the *Revista*. This edition is published in text-book style. Each chapter is supplemented by a résumé and biographical sketches. The history covers Brazil from its earliest colonization until 1922.]

Instituto panamericano de geografia e história . . . Assembléia inaugural, 1932-1933 . . . Rio de Janeiro, Imprensa nacional, 1934. v. I: 4 p.l., [7]-651 p. plates, tables, diags. (part. fold.) 24½ cm. (*Revista do Instituto histórico e geographico brasileiro*. [The complete report of the inaugural session of the Pan American institute of geography and history is to be published in three volumes, under the auspices of the Instituto histórico e geographico brasileiro, and edited by Dr. Manuel Cicero Peregrino da Silva, first vice-president of the Brazilian Institute and chief of the Brazilian delegation at the inaugural session. This first volume contains the proceedings of the several meetings and all papers presented in the first section. Each paper is published in the original language, followed by a brief summary in Portuguese.]

Tratado de direito internacional público, por Hildebrando Accioly . . . Rio de Janeiro, Imprensa nacional, 1934. v. II: viii, 487 p. 24½ cm. [Volume I of this work (Rio de Janeiro, 1933) was listed in the December 1933, BULLETIN. Volume II discusses in part II the property of the state (including territory), ships and aircraft, and in part III, peaceful relations between states. Dr. Accioly, formerly Counselor of Embassy in Washington, is now Minister of Brazil in Roumania.]

Tendencias de la narración imaginativa en Cuba [por el] Dr. Juan J. Remos y Rubio . . . Habana, La Casa Montalvo-Cárdenas, 1935. 204, [11] p. 18 cm. [This work is composed of four lectures given by the author in a course which he gave in the summer of 1931. In them he surveys the Cuban novel in its several types, describes the characteristics of each type, and reviews various representative novels.]

La biblioteca pública central del Estado de México, por José García Payón. Toluca, Talleres gráficos de la E. de A. y O., 1934. 3 p. l., 32, [1] p. plates, ports.,

3 fold. diagsr. 22½ cm. [This brief monograph, written by the present director of the library, tells its complete history, from the first founding in 1827.]

Documentos históricos sobre la independencia del istmo de Panamá. Panamá, Imprenta nacional, 1930. iv, 562 p. 23 cm. (Publicaciones del Instituto nacional de Panamá.) [A collection of documents and studies on the separation of Panama from Colombia made by Sr. Ernesto J. Castillero R., of the Instituto nacional.]

La causa inmediata de la emancipación de Panamá; historia de los orígenes, la formación y el rechazo por el senado colombiano, del tratado Herrán-Hay. Por Ernesto J. Castillero R. . . . Panamá, Imprenta nacional, 1933. viii, 184 p. plates, ports. 25½ cm. (Publicaciones de la Academia panameña de la historia. Volumen I.) [In this study, presented to the Panama Academy of history, Sr. Castillero discusses the antecedents of the Herrán-Hay treaty and the diplomatic history of the treaty. A three-page bibliography follows the work.]

Balseros del Titicaca [por] Emilio Romero. Lima, Ediciones "Perú actual", 1934. 109 p., 1 l. 18½ cm. [A collection of short stories formerly published in the *Revista Variedades* of Lima, interesting because of the description and the folk-lore of the Titicaca lake country.]

Historia de América contemporánea [por el] Dr. A. M. Pajuelo . . . Lima, Imp. Minerva, 1933. 319 p. illus., ports. 21½ cm. [A new text-book history published in Lima which covers the history of America during the wars of independence, through the nineteenth century up to the present.]

Historia de la independencia de la República oriental del Uruguay, por Pedro Riva-Zucchelli. Montevideo, Imprenta "El siglo ilustrado", 1934. 384 p. pl. (port.) 19½ cm. [This history of Uruguayan independence covers a single period, approximately from 1820 to 1850. Various documentary sources have been used to obtain the material.]

La enseñanza especial en el Uruguay [por] Emilio Verdesio. Montevideo, Imprenta nacional, 1934. 261 p., 1 l. illus., tables, diagsr. (1 fold.) 24 cm. [Sr. Verdesio, a member of the Consejo nacional de enseñanza primaria y normal, reports on the great amount of work done by the government in Uruguay to aid handicapped children as well as the subnormal and gifted. He discusses also the special technique which teachers of these special classes must have.]

Report of the delegates of the United States of America to the Seventh International Conference of American States, Montevideo, Uruguay, December 3-26, 1933. Washington, U. S. Govt. print. off., 1934. xi p., 1 l., 346 p. 23½ cm. (Department of state. Publication No. 666, Conference series No. 19.) [In this volume are found the reports of the work of the 10 committees of the conference and appendices which include addresses at the opening and closing sessions; conventions, additional protocol, and procès verbal adopted; resolutions, recommendations, declarations, etc.; and miscellaneous statements and reports.]

Chan Kom, a Maya village, by Robert Redfield . . . and Alfonso Villa R. [Washington, D. C.] Carnegie institution of Washington, 1934. viii, 387 p. illus. (incl. maps, diagsr., music) 16 plates. 30½x23 cm. (Carnegie institution of Washington. Publication no. 448.) Contents: Chan Kom, a Maya village.—Appendix A: A Chan Kom diary, by Alfonso Villa R.—Appendix B: Myths, legends and tales.—Appendix C: Texts of Maya prayers.—Appendix D: Notes on Maya midwifery, by Katheryn MacKay.—Appendix E: Indian and Spanish elements in the Chan Kom culture.—Appendix F: Glossary of Maya and Spanish plant and animal names mentioned in the text.—Bibliographies (pp. 375 and 380). ["This book" says the preface, "is an account of the basic folk culture as it manifests itself in one particular village in eastern Yucatan." [Robert Redfield and Alfonso Villa have both spent much time in the Maya village of which they write, Villa's diary being written during 1930 and 1931.]

Contributions to American archaeology . . . published by Carnegie institution of Washington. [Washington, D. C.] Carnegie institution of Washington, 1934. v. II, nos. 5 to 12: 2 p. l., 355 p. illus., plates (part col., 1 fold. col.) diags., maps (1 fold.) 29x23 cm. (Carnegie institution of Washington. Publication no. 436) Contents: No. 5. Two recent ceramic finds at Uaxactun, by A. Ledyard Smith.—No. 6. The engineering knowledge of the Maya, by Lawrence Roys.—No. 7. House mounds of Uaxactun, Guatemala, by Robert Wauchope, with notes on the pottery, by Edith B. Ricketson.—No. 8. Ruins of Polol and other archaeological discoveries in the department of Petén, Guatemala, by Cyrus L. Lundell.—No. 9. The Yaxuna-Cobá causeway, by Alfonso Villa R.—No. 10. Sky bearers, colors and directions in Maya and Mexican religion, by J. Eric Thompson.—No. 11. Maya chronology: the fifteen Tun glyph, by J. Eric Thompson.—No. 12. Preliminary sketch of the phytogeography of the Yucatan peninsula, by Cyrus L. Lundell. The grasses of the Yucatan peninsula, by Jason R. Swallen. [Volume I of the "Contributions" was published in 1931. In the collection comprising volume II each study is complete in itself, with illustrations and bibliography.]

The following magazines are new or have been received in the library for the first time:

Boletín de aeronáutica civil; publicación oficial de la Dirección de aeronáutica civil. Buenos Aires, 1934. Año I, no. 1, enero de 1934. 80 p. diags. 25x18 cm. Monthly. Address: Dirección de aeronáutica civil, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

La Canción moderna; radio canciones. Buenos Aires, 1934. Año viii, no. 336, agosto 27 de 1934. [48] p. ports. 28½x21 cm. Editor: Julio Korn. Address: Corrientes 931, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

O Onze de agosto; órgão do Centro academico "XI de agosto" da Faculdade de direito de São Paulo. São Paulo, 1934. no. 1, outubro de 1934. 45 p. illus. 27x20 cm. Monthly. Editors: Afranio Zucoloto, Luiz Edmur Arantes Barreto, Mario Hoepfner Dutra, Osmar Pimentel. Address: Faculdade de direito de la Universidade de São Paulo, Brasil.

Alma América; revista enciclopédica ilustrada. Guatemala, 1934. Año I, no. 5, noviembre de 1934. 36 p. illus., ports. 31x23 cm. Monthly. Editor: Josefina Saravia E. Address: 12 Avenida Sur, 8, Guatemala, Guatemala.

Noticiero semanal. Mexico, 1934. Año I, no. 1, 15 de diciembre de 1934. 4 p. 33½x21 cm. Weekly. Address: Departamento de publicidad de la Secretaría de relaciones exteriores, Mexico, D. F.

La Voz rotaria; órgano del Rotary club de Lima, Perú. Tomo x, no. 108, 30 de noviembre de 1934. 29 p. ports. 21½x11 cm. Address: Apartado 315, Lima, Perú.

El Progreso arquitectónico en el Uruguay. Montevideo, no. LXXX-LXXXI. 32 p. illus. 28x19½ cm. Monthly. Address: Constituyente, 1327, Montevideo, República O. del Uruguay.

Bolivia; revista diplomática, consular, intereses generales. Caracas, 1934. Año I, no. 1, diciembre de 1934. [24] p. illus., ports. 28½x19 cm. Monthly. Editor: Bernardino Rosillo. Address: Pelota a Abanico 23, Caracas, Estados Unidos de Venezuela.

Mexican news digest; a summary, in all branches, of important commercial and development information for the guidance of executives, published fortnightly by the Noel Mexican service. México, D. F., 1934. [Vol. 1, No. 1] September 1, 1934. 6 p. 34½x22 cm. Editor: John Vavasour Noel. Address: P. O. box 82 bis, Edificio Cook, S. Juan de Letrán 24, Room 101, México, D. F., México.

PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

NATIONAL ECONOMIC COUNCILS

A National Economic Council to coordinate governmental economic policy has been created in Ecuador by an executive decree issued at Guayaquil on January 6, 1935. Similar bodies have already been established in Mexico, Peru, and Chile to aid the Executive in the solution of problems affecting the general economic life of the country. The Ecuadorean council, which functions under the Ministry of Finance and Public Credit, is composed of one representative of the Central Bank, two of the commercial banks, one of commerce and industry, another of agriculture, and two private citizens, all of whom are appointed and removed by the President. The council is expected (1) to study the economic and financial problems of Ecuador and advise the Minister of Finance on their solution; (2) to draft laws and decrees on economic matters for submission to the President; and (3) to render an opinion on the annual budget bill and public works plan as well as on proposed economic and social legislation. It is to act only in an advisory capacity; its opinions are not binding upon the Executive, who may issue decrees on economic matters without consulting it. Meetings are to be held at least once a week and its members are to receive 20 sucres for each meeting.

The Mexican council, established by the law of July 25, 1933, consists of 107 members: 31 representatives of local councils; 10 representatives apiece of agriculture, mining industries, manufacturing industries, commerce, and public utility undertakings, of which half are employers and half workers; five representatives apiece of the consuming public, the banks, and the liberal professions; and 10 economic experts and a secretary general appointed by the President. It holds plenary meetings each August and extraordinary sessions when convoked by the President. When not in session a standing committee carries on its functions. The council advises on questions referred to it by the President, submits to the Executive plans for the improvement of the economic and social condition of the country and undertakes all the inquiries necessary for the fulfillment of these tasks. While the President is not obliged to conform to its decisions or carry out its recommendations, all proposals affecting the general economic life of the country must be submitted for examination, except in serious and urgent cases when, on the authority of the President, consultation in advance may be dispensed with.

The Peruvian council is provided for in the new constitution and was inaugurated on November 3, 1933. Its organization is described in the February, 1934, issue of the BULLETIN. The Chilean council, described in the BULLETIN for January, 1935, is made up of cabinet ministers, the economic interests of the country being represented by a commission which advises the council on the economic questions which it submits to its consideration.—G. A. S.

RECENT LABOR LEGISLATION IN CUBA

The Government of Cuba has recently issued decree-laws to carry out conventions signed at International Labor Conferences and ratified by that Republic. On October 16, 1934, President Mendieta signed decree-laws no. 598, forbidding night work for women and their employment in hazardous industries in accordance with the convention signed at the first conference, Washington, 1919, and no. 591, dealing with the minimum age for the admission of minors to employment at sea, obligatory medical examinations for children and young men employed on vessels, and the minimum age for admission of young men as trimmers and stokers, in accordance with conventions signed at the second and third conferences, Genoa, 1920, and Geneva, 1921. Decree-law no. 647, signed October 31, 1934, deals with night work and employment in hazardous industries for young persons, in accordance with the convention signed at the first conference. Decree-law no. 727, signed November 30, 1934, created a minimum wage commission, in accordance with the convention on wage-fixing machinery signed at the eleventh conference, Geneva, 1928.

WAGE COMMISSIONS IN COSTA RICA

Decree no. 41, signed on December 19, 1934, by President Jiménez, authorized the establishment of a wage commission in each canton of Costa Rica on the petition of ten or more workers or employers resident therein. The commissions, whose membership will vary in number according to the industrial and agricultural development in the cantons, will recommend to the Department of Labor minimum wages in their respective districts for both farm and industrial laborers, see that executive decrees setting wages in their districts are carried out, and keep track of the prices of staple foods.

MODIFIED FREE TRADE IN PANAMA

With the enactment of the so-called free trade law¹ Panama has taken the first decisive step toward fostering its tourist and re-export trade and becoming the distributing center for inter-American commerce to which it is entitled by reason of its unique geographical location. Considered the most important economic measure enacted since the country became an independent nation, the free-trade law eliminates completely import duties on all commodities regarded as not advantageously produced in the Republic and which are sold largely to tourists and residents of the Canal Zone. Effective June 1, about 600 items of imported merchandise, including textile products; machinery, rubber, wood, iron and steel manufactures; earthen and crystal ware; jewelry; silverware; toilet articles; and certain foodstuffs, will enter the country subject only to a consular fee of 5 percent of the f. o. b. value, port of exportation. To this list of duty-free goods the President is authorized to add all those commodities not nationally produced which he may deem convenient in order to foster tourist trade, provided that decrees to this effect are issued at least 120 days before they are to become effective.

The law also eliminates the difficulties which had impeded the development of a re-export trade in Panama by providing that the Treasury Department will refund the full amount paid as import duty on any kind of merchandise which is re-exported on and after March 1, 1935. To obtain the refund the merchant simply has to prove that the merchandise was shipped out of the country on a vessel of not less than one thousand tons.

For the purpose of making Panama an inter-American center of distribution all machinery, raw materials, and other articles necessary for the operation of assembly plants and the development of the industrial, manufacturing, and commercial activities customary in free ports will be exempt from import duties and consular fee. To obtain these exemptions, which were effective on March 1, 1935, it is necessary for the interested concern to negotiate a contract with the Government on the following basis: (1) The concern must agree to pay the corresponding import duties and the consular fee on goods which are sold within the Republic instead of being re-exported; (2) the concern agrees to permit the examination of its books by the Comptroller General of Panama at any time and without formalities; (3) the concern must comply with Panama's labor laws, maintaining a minimum monthly pay roll to Panamanian workers of \$3,000; (4) the

¹ Law No. 42 of December 24, 1934, regulating free trade in the Republic of Panama; *Gaceta Oficial*, Panama, December 28, 1934.

concern must post a bond of not less than \$7,500 to guarantee the fulfillment of the provisions of the contract, which if so requested can be made for a period as long as 15 years.

The law also contains several articles which are independent of the new tariff regulations and refer to the project for the development of a large deep water port at Chame Bay and the eventual establishment of a free zone there. The Executive is authorized to contract a loan or grant a concession for the dredging of the bay and the construction of a pier and warehouses.—G.A.S.

CHILD WELFARE MEASURES IN CHILE

The Pan American Union has received, through the Chilean Embassy in Washington, the following report on child welfare measures taken in that country:

Activities connected with child welfare are carried out in Chile by several official and private institutions, especially by the National Council for the Protection of Children, established by decree no. 1450 of May 30, 1934. The General Bureau of Health also deals with this problem: one of its offices is the Bureau of Maternal and Child Welfare, established to see that the Sanitary Code regulations on this subject are carried out.

The office carries on its work through 10 preventive centers, 8 in Santiago and 2 in Valparaíso. At present the establishment of others in additional cities is under consideration. These centers have on their staffs competent pediatricians who give periodical examinations to infants, children of pre-school age, and school children, besides doing pre- and postnatal health work.

The task of educating the public is done by the pediatrician through direct consultation with mothers and by the distribution of special educational printed matter.

The periodical health examination classifies the children according to their build and includes a general clinical examination and a special test. In this way tuberculosis may be diagnosed at a very early stage. Children with a positive tuberculosis reaction are also given an X-ray examination at the Roberto del Río Hospital, which cooperates with the preventive centers. Every tubercular child is the object of a special medico-social study and the problems arising from his condition are treated individually and competently through the social-work section of the department.

Children suffering from congenital syphilis are also given routine treatment, which consists in preventing any spread of the disease as well as common infections to which such children are more liable than well ones. Other diseases which lessen immunity and resistance

to common infections are also treated systematically. First among such diseases is rickets, which makes the sufferer especially susceptible to respiratory diseases. Therefore the children are treated by giving them irradiated ergotinine and ultra-violet ray treatments in the special section which the department maintains for that purpose. The Department also has special services for treating diseases of the eye, ear, nose and throat.

In caring for the teeth, special attention is given to preventive measures. To this end the Department of Maternal and Child Welfare works in close cooperation with the Dental Service of the General Bureau of Health, which provides all preventive dental treatments in the centers.

The work here outlined is complemented by special preventive work against certain communicable diseases, among which are grippe, whooping-cough, measles, diphtheria, and scarlet fever. Against the first two vaccination, both preventive and curative, is given in the centers. Measles is prevented in small children by giving them injections of serum as soon as possible after they have been exposed to the disease. Measures against diphtheria and scarlet fever are taken in the schools. For this purpose the Dick and Schick test are given methodically and the children with positive reactions are immediately vaccinated with the proper antitoxins, prepared by the Bacteriological Institute of Chile.

During 1931, 6,176 children were examined at these centers; this number more than doubled in the ensuing years, being 16,333 in 1932 and 34,126 in 1933. In view of the extraordinary development and great benefits which the preventive centers provide, as evident from these figures, the General Bureau of Health has felt it necessary to increase and add to its child health work.

EXTENSION OF TIME LIMIT FOR RATIFICATION OF PROTOCOL BETWEEN COLOMBIA AND PERU

The Governments of Colombia and Peru have agreed to extend the time limit for ratification of the protocol of Peace, Friendship and Cooperation signed by representatives of the two nations in Rio de Janeiro on May 24, 1934. This is commonly known as the Leticia Protocol. (See BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for August 1934.)

On February 23, 1935, the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the two countries issued simultaneous statements saying that negotiations relative to the extension of the time for ratification has been carried on in Bogotá at the request of the Colombian Government. This was necessary because parliamentary difficulties arising in the Colom-

bian Congress made it impossible for that body to ratify the protocol within the period originally set. The Peruvian Minister in Bogotá informed the Colombian Government that the Congress of his country had expressed its willingness to extend the time until November 30, 1935. The two Governments exchanged cordial notes in which they agreed to preserve the cordiality and confidence resulting from the signing of the protocol.

In fulfilment of article V of the protocol, according to which both countries should study the demilitarization of the frontier according to the normal requirements of security, the two Governments agreed that the Commission of Experts should meet shortly in Lima. The Colombian member of the Commission, Señor Luis Acevedo, left for Lima about the middle of March.

BRIEF NOTES

SPECIAL POWERS GRANTED TO THE PRESIDENT OF MEXICO

On December 31, 1934, a series of decrees was passed by Congress and signed by President Cárdenas granting to the Chief Executive special powers, until August 31, 1935, to revise the Migration Law, the Federal Statute of the Judiciary, the Agrarian Code of March 22, 1934, and certain judicial organization and procedure in the Federal District and Territories, to issue a new law to carry out section I of Article 27 of the Constitution (dealing with the ownership of lands), and to issue and revise educational legislation. The President was also granted special powers to dictate measures for the improvement and organization of agriculture.

MEXICO RATIFIES EQUAL NATIONALITY CONVENTION

On December 29, 1934, President Cardenas proclaimed ratification by Mexico of the Convention on the Nationality of Women signed by 19 American Republics at the Seventh International Conference of American States. Chile and the United States ratified the treaty last year.

MEXICO APPOINTS WOMAN MINISTER TO COLOMBIA

The Government of Mexico has appointed Señorita Palma Guillén Minister to Colombia.

Mexico thus becomes the first Latin American country to honor a woman with diplomatic appointment (although there have been several consuls) and Señorita Guillén the first woman diplomat on the American continent to serve in an American Republic.

Señorita Palma Guillén has been Director of Secondary Education in Mexico and professor in the University of Mexico, from which she

was graduated, and holds a number of degrees from foreign universities, among them the University of Paris. She has served on several scientific missions which have required extensive travel. At the time of her appointment she was in Spain, from where she has been called home to receive instructions for her new appointment.

REORGANIZATION OF THE COLOMBIAN MINISTRY OF NATIONAL EDUCATION

President López signed on December 17, 1934, Law no. 12 of that year reorganizing the Ministry of National Education and making provision for basic changes in special fields. The law states that beginning in 1936 at least 10 per cent of the national income shall be devoted to public education. This measure, as the President pointed out in a message to Congress on the same day, is in keeping with the ideals for the advancement of the nation as a whole which the present government is trying to realize.

NATIONAL MUSEUM OF HONDURAS

As part of the celebration of the Honduran national holiday last September, the National Museum in Tegucigalpa, the first of its kind in the country, was reopened. There are four divisions: natural history, whose collections show the animal, vegetable, and mineral wealth of Honduras; archaeology, with exhibits from Copán, Tenampúa, and other sites; national history; and national products, with an especially fine display of woods. It will be recalled that a recent earthquake has revealed Copán to be an even more important Maya site than it had hitherto been considered.

COMMISSION OF COMMERCIAL PROPAGANDA AND EXPANSION IN THE STATE OF BAHIA

Federal Interventor Juracy Magalhães of the State of Bahia established by Decree no. 9202 of November 17, 1934, the State Commission of Commercial Propaganda and Expansion. This, it was announced, was in fulfilment of a plan of President Vargas whereby each State shall have such a commission to cooperate with the Federal Foreign Trade Council. The commission in Bahia will be composed of the Chief Executive of the State, the Secretaries of Agriculture, Industry, Commerce, Communications, and Public Works, and three representatives of the labor, commerce, and industry of the State, to be chosen by the governor to serve for one year.

ANTITUBERCULOSIS CLINIC OPENED IN LIMA

The Antituberculosis Clinic of the Bureau of Public Health in Lima was opened on October 20, 1934. The clinic will care especially for children of tuberculous parents or those already suffering from the disease.

NECROLOGY

JOHN BARTON PAYNE.—On January 24, 1935, Judge Payne, chairman of the American Red Cross from 1921 to 1935, died in Washington two days before his 80th birthday. Born in a small town in Virginia, he had an early life of hardship, but when 21 was admitted to the bar and practiced in his native state for six years. In 1882 he went to Chicago, where his abilities as lawyer, judge, and public spirited citizen brought him such a succession of public offices that he was forced to give up his Chicago law practice and make his home in Washington. He served in many capacities under five Presidents; among his positions were those of Secretary of the Interior, under President Wilson, and member of the commission to negotiate recognition with Mexico, appointed by President Harding. In 1922 Judge Payne was made chairman of the Board of Governors of the League of Red Cross Societies, with headquarters in Paris, a post to which he was reelected annually until his death. Among the foreign nations which had decorated him for his humanitarian work were Chile, Costa Rica, and Venezuela.



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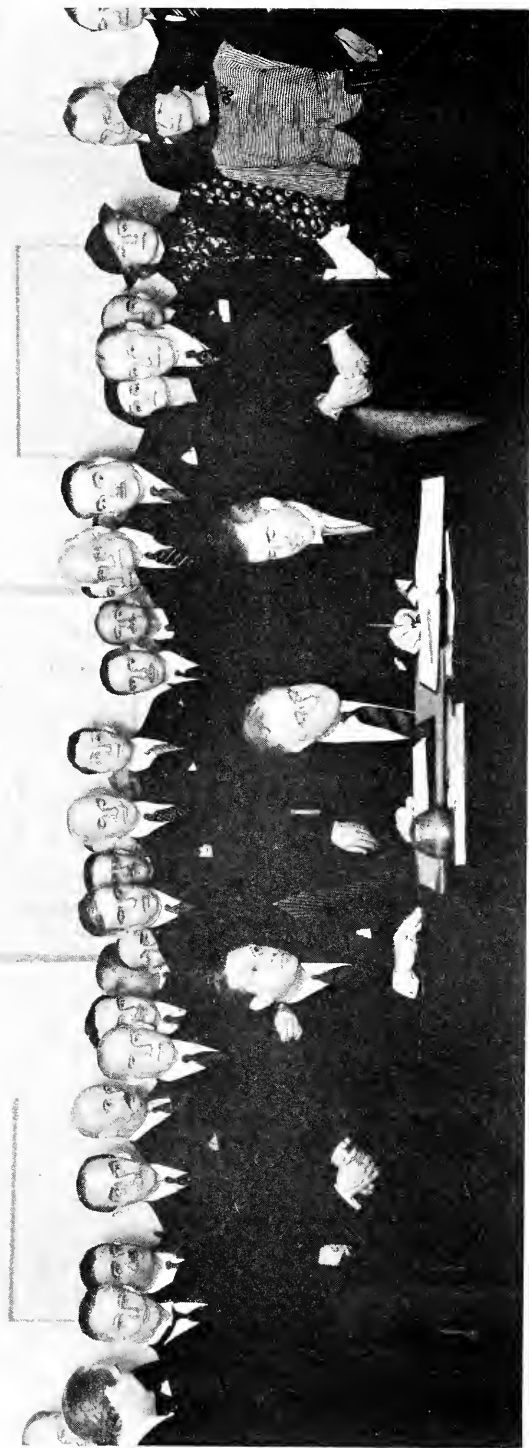
THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

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SIGNING THE ROERICH PACT AT THE WHITE HOUSE, APRIL 15, 1935.

As a part of the official observance of Pan American Day a treaty to "preserve the treasures of art, science and religion, the historic monuments and sites, against destruction in times of war and peace" was signed in the presence of President Roosevelt by representatives of the Latin American nations in Washington and by the Secretary of Agriculture, Hon. Henry A. Wallace, for the United States. Seated at the desk, to the left and right of the President are Señor Don Felipe A. Espil, the Ambassador of Argentina in Washington, and Secretary Wallace.



VOL. LXIX

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No. 5

THE ROERICH PACT

PAN American Day, 1935, will long be remembered as the day when the nations of America led the world in declaring that the tangible evidences of the accumulated culture of mankind must be protected against destruction or mutilation in time of war as well as in peace.

At noon on April 15, 1935, plenipotentiaries of the twenty-one Republics of America gathered in the White House to sign the Treaty on the Protection of Artistic and Scientific Institutions and Historic Monuments, known as the Roerich Pact. The significance of the occasion was expressed by President Roosevelt, when he said:

It is most appropriate that on this day, designated as Pan American Day by the Chief Executives of all the Republics of the American continent, the Governments, members of the Pan American Union, should sign a treaty which marks a step forward in the preservation of the cultural achievements of the nations of this hemisphere. In opening this pact to the adherence of the nations of the world, we are endeavoring to make of universal application one of the principles vital to the preservation of modern civilization.

This treaty possesses a spiritual significance far deeper than the text of the instrument itself. It is but one of the many expressions of that basic doctrine of continental responsibility and continental solidarity which means so much to the present and to the future of the American Republics.

On the occasion of this celebration of Pan American Day let us again dedicate ourselves to the task of translating into deeds the essential unity of interest of the nations of this continent. Let us also bring renewed allegiance to those high principles of international cooperation and helpfulness which, I feel assured, will be a great contribution to civilization by the Americas.

The Hon. Henry A. Wallace, Secretary of Agriculture, the plenipotentiary of the United States, explained in his remarks why the agreement is known as the Roerich Pact. His complete address was as follows:

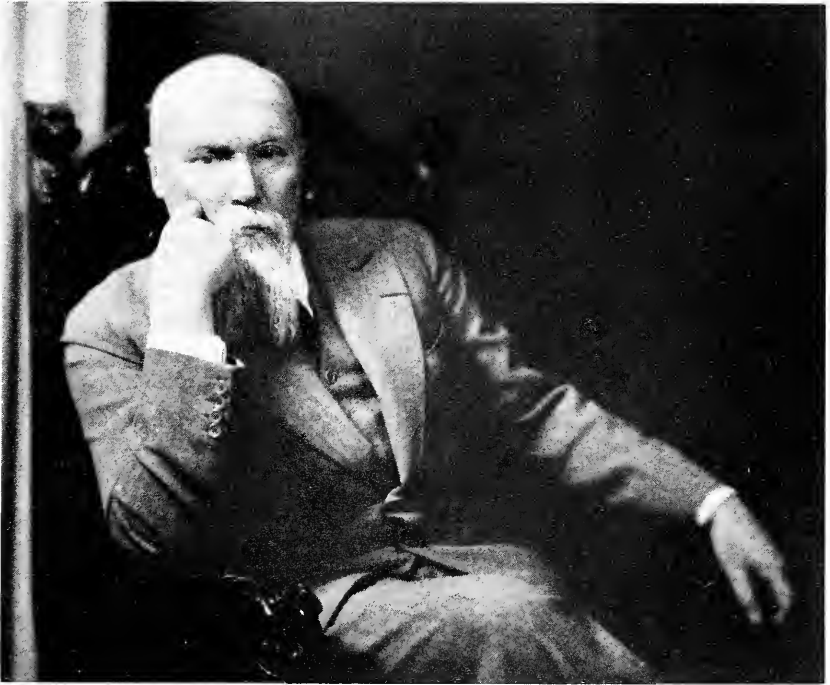
This day at the beginning of the Holy Week before Easter in the year 1935, representatives of the American Nations have signed the Roerich Peace Pact providing for the protection in times of war and peace of those cultural treasures

which the enlightened spirits of all lands recognize as worthy of preservation no matter how tense and bitter the strife in the physical and economic world. I have felt it a great pleasure and honor to be associated today with these gentlemen from many different nations in signing this historic document which in my opinion will take its place beside the Red Cross treaties as a symbol of those forces which bind the nations together. I look forward to the day when travellers over the world will look for the banner of the encircled triple crimson sphere, knowing when they see it that here is something which has in its significance running across the national boundary lines, something of peculiar beauty, a national monument, a heritage out of the past, or something of unusual importance in the scientific or educational world.

Speaking a few days ago at the annual meeting of the Red Cross, I had occasion to pay tribute to the sympathetic heart and practical genius of Henry Dunant, a Swiss, who, as a result of the suffering which he saw at the battle of Solferino in Italy in 1859, promoted the movement which finally became the International Red Cross. Today it is appropriate that we should give recognition to the genius of Nicholas Roerich in whose mind this pact and banner first originated. Thirty-two years ago on an archaeological trip through the ancient monasteries of Russia, he became impressed with the dangers of the vandalism in peace or the barbarism in war which might destroy many irreplaceable human treasures. At that time he presented a report to the Society of Architects of Russia urging on them the desirability of starting a movement of this sort. Again in 1915 after the destruction which characterized the first year of the World War, he brought the matter to the attention of the Czar and Grand Duke of Russia. But at that time unfortunately the heat of war was upon the nations and nothing practical could be done. Again after the World War, travelling in Central Asia, Professor Roerich discovered that many priceless objects out of the past were being destroyed not only by barbaric tribesmen, but by western travellers. Therefore, in 1929 on his return from Asia he formulated what essentially is the present pact, which won the support of international jurists and cultural leaders of both Europe and the United States. It is not surprising that the first two meetings on this pact were held in Belgium. The third convention was held in November 1933 in Washington with official delegates from 35 nations. Following this meeting, the Montevideo Conference passed a resolution recommending its adoption by the American States. Pursuant to this resolution the Governing Board of the Pan American Union prepared the pact which is today being officially launched as an international agreement.

Interesting as the history of the pact has been, it is even more important to consider its present uses and its future. Humanity today is terribly heartsick. As a result of the disintegrating forces let loose by the World War and the differential economic effects of increasing mechanization, there has been a rising tension and uneasiness between the classes and between the nations. Efforts have been made again and again to solve this disturbing situation by disarmament conferences, peace treaties, economic conversations, and currency stabilization agreements. Thus far all of these have proved singularly disappointing. With the international situation as it is today, no great nation feels that it can altogether renounce war as a possible instrument of national policy. Those who attempt to bring about the renunciation of war without working more precisely on the nature of the binding ties of human hearts across the nations are probably engaged in vain undertakings.

Many of the logically fine objectives in the way of lowering economic and currency barriers can perhaps be attained in any complete and binding fashion only after the human beings of the world have come more nearly to recognize their



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NICHOLAS ROERICH.

Nicholas Roerich, creator of the pact bearing his name, has won international renown as an artist and scientist. He was born in Russia in 1874 of lineage including Icelandic Vikings of the eighth century and the most ancient Slavs of Kiev. In his earliest years Roerich demonstrated his genius in art and archaeology. His paintings are hung in leading museums of about 25 countries. Soon after his arrival in the United States in 1919 at the invitation of the Chicago Art Institute, he founded the Roerich Museum in New York, which has become an international cultural center with branches in many countries. In 1903, following an archaeological journey through Russia, he conceived the idea of the pact which has won the support of cultural leaders and official bodies. Pursuant to a resolution passed by the Seventh Pan American Conference recommending the adoption of the pact by the American governments, a treaty based on the pact was drawn up by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union and signed by the plenipotentiaries of the 21 Republics on April 15, 1935.

cultural unity. Concerning beauty, true science and the cultural treasures of the past there can be no discord among the different peoples of the world. A Rembrandt is appreciated whether it is found in the United States, in the Netherlands or in Germany.

No one knows today how far it is possible for the different nations of the world to go in forming international currency pacts, the lowering of trade barriers or disarmament agreements. Methods of this sort tend too often to be sophisticated and futile. While undoubtedly efforts in these directions should continue, it would seem desirable also to hold up before the world, in times like these, the ideal of the unity of human heart regardless of nation in the worship of beauty, of culture, of religion, of science and of education. There are thousands of people in each of the nations of the world animated by these finer, broader human aspirations, and many of them will welcome the mechanism of the Roerich Pact as a means of making more manifest on earth those intangible forces which they have long recognized as the true guides of international good feeling.

Throughout all history mankind has sought an ever deeper and broader unity of purpose. During the past 300 years much has been said about the rights of the individual. As persons and as nations, the individuals have striven mightily. In so doing they have brought themselves to the brink of chaos, and it is now necessary to think a little more about duties, and a little less perhaps about rights; a little more perhaps about discipline, and a little less perhaps about complete freedom; a little more about the ties which bind us all together and much less about the hatreds and irritations which thrust us as individuals, or classes, or nations, apart from one another. The symbolism of the three spheres contained in the larger circle to my mind conveys the thought of the most complete realization of the possibilities of the individual person or the particular class or the specific nation within the limitations of the larger whole. This is a philosophic doctrine of the most profound significance. In law and government we can speculate endlessly and with profit about the relationship between liberty and duty, and the development of a constructive outcome to the apparent conflict between individualistic democracy and the strong enforcement of constructive justice. Always the individualistic units must strive to their utmost to realize their full potentialities, but always these efforts must be within the due bounds of a cultural decency which recognizes the fundamental unity of all humanity. Those who would emphasize a particular individual or class or nation beyond these due bounds violate what I believe to be a sacred law, and inevitably must pay the penalty.

I believe the Roerich Pact is in conformity with the deepest, most sacred laws of the universe, and that it has become an international reality at an especially propitious time. Launched in the year 1935 at the beginning of the Holy Week before Easter, it can, and I believe will, serve as the germinal essence of what eventually will be a New Deal among the nations. And in so saying, I am not talking about a New Deal characterized by emergency agencies but about the spiritual New Deal which places that which is fine in humanity above that which is low and sordid and mean and hateful and grabbing.

From an immediate practical point of view, the next step would seem to be for the permanent committee of which I happen to be honorary chairman and of which Louis L. Horch, president of the Roerich Museum, is active chairman, to start upon the task of cataloging the particular sites, museums, national monuments, scientific institutions, etc., which are entitled under the terms of the pact to protection from vandalism in peace and barbarism in war. Such places are entitled to fly the banner of peace. Thus far the Roerich Peace Pact has been open to signature only by the American nations. Henceforth it will be open to signature by all the nations of the world. I anticipate that those who work with this great cultural instrument will deepen the true international consciousness of the finest people in all the nations. This consciousness can be arrived at not as a result of a narrow class dogma or a commercial treaty or a disarmament agreement, but by an appeal to the common appreciation of those treasures of beauty and science which each nation wishes to pass on to posterity as its peculiar and enduring contribution to the ages.

Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, Minister of Panama, speaking for the other nations of America, mentioned the provisions in some earlier treaties indicating that the general principles upon which the Roerich Pact is based had been recognized, although never fully acknowledged. Dr. Alfaro said:

MR. PRESIDENT, YOUR EXCELLENCIES:

The historic act which has just taken place is one that marks a signal victory in the perennial struggle of the better sentiments of man against the ravages of war. Seventy one years ago a convention was signed at Geneva whereby the person of the wounded and the infirm was pronounced sacred and placed beyond the sphere of armed hostilities. Today the representatives of the Republics of the American continent have gathered at the White House in Washington for the purpose of pronouncing also sacred the treasures of art, science and history which constitute the common heritage of mankind.

After the protection accorded by international agreement to humanitarian activities such as the Red Cross, civilization has undertaken the protection of human culture. The world is today wonderfully organized for service in behalf of those who have fallen by their colors in the bloody clashes of war. The Red Cross guarantees immunity and respect to physicians and nurses in the discharge of their humanitarian ministrations; to hospitals and ambulances; to all persons and things devoted to the alleviation of the misery and suffering brought about by the armed strife of nation against nation.

But in the forward march of the human spirit it has been felt that there is something else that needs protection and immunity; something that must not be subjected to the ravages of indiscriminate devastation; something that must be befriended by all because it is the friend of all; something that is not the exclusive possession of any one people or race because it is just as much of a blessing and a necessity to civilized life as light and sunshine are to every living being; something that brings happiness to all, and injury to none; something that must be inviolable because it is the reflection of the divine spark kindled within the soul of man; something that we may express with that one word culture, as indicating the scientific, artistic, educational, moral and social achievements of all ages and all peoples.

Art and science are claiming inviolability for the treasures which they have accumulated through the ages. Civilization cannot conceive and must not tolerate any longer the perpetration of such acts of vandalism and fanaticism as have been responsible in the past for the burning of libraries, the demolition of temples, the razing of monuments, the devastation of architectural gems which represented the genius and the energy of generation upon generation; the annihilation of knowledge which represented the accumulated experience of centuries; the destruction of the fruit of brains which have turned into dust and which can have immortal life only in the books, the paintings, the statues, the musical scores, the monuments, the buildings in which they created beauty or revealed truth.

To this imperative demand of civilization modern nations have been responding little by little with numerous movements tending to protect and preserve the treasures of universal culture.

By the general act of the Berlin Conference on African Trade, held by a group of European nations and the United States in 1885, the high contracting parties agreed among themselves to extend protection to the religious, scientific and charitable institutions or expeditions which might operate in the African continent. This act of respect for the work of civilization was reaffirmed by the Treaty of St. Germain, signed in 1919, article 11 of which stipulates that the signatory powers "will protect and favor without distinction of nationality or religion, the religious, scientific or charitable institutions and undertakings created and organized by the nationals of the other signatory powers, and of States members of the League of Nations which may adhere to the present convention, which aim at leading the natives in the path of progress and civilization.

Scientific missions, their property and their collections, shall likewise be the object of special solicitude”.

The Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1907 undertook to extend to the whole world, with much broader scope, the protection needed by the depositories of universal culture. Article 27 of the Second Hague Convention, on the laws and customs of war on land, provided:

“In sieges and bombardments all necessary steps must be taken to spare, as far as possible, buildings dedicated to religion, art, science and charity, historic monuments, hospitals and places where the wounded are assembled, provided they are not being used at the time for military purposes. It is the duty of the besieged to indicate the presence of such buildings or places by distinctive and visible signs of which the enemy shall be notified beforehand.”

A similar provision was embodied in article 5 of the convention on the rules of naval bombardment.

Seven years after the Second Peace Conference the greatest conflagration of history broke out in Europe. The whole world gazed with horror upon the appalling devastation wrought by the contending armies, but it visualized with still greater horror the increased possibility of damage and ruin to be expected in a future war by reason of the advances made in the methods of warfare, in the technique of death and destruction.

Thinking men pondered the horrible prospect; lovers of culture and humanity meditated. A great idealist and fervent apostle of peace, Professor Nicholas Roerich, conceived the plan of an international convention for the neutralization and protection of the cultural treasures of the world.

Then the Republics of the Western Hemisphere sought and attained the honor of carrying the lofty project to a successful conclusion. The Montevideo Conference sponsored the Roerich Pact and this day, the Republics of America have subscribed a covenant, open also to the signature of all other nations, whereby for the first time in history the neutrality and protection of culture are incorporated into one single and complete body of conventional international law. The deep significance of this occasion has been enhanced by the gracious hospitality which the President of the United States has shown the plenipotentiaries of the signatory nations by inviting them to perform the historic act in the White House. For this splendid gesture President Roosevelt has placed us all under a debt of obligation.

The pact signed today responds to the suggestion of the Hague Convention of 1907 that a distinctive and visible sign shall serve to indicate the presence of historic monuments, museums, scientific, artistic and cultural institutions. Henceforth, over the buildings which are the temples of civilization, a flag will be unfurled, the flag of the Red Circle, the banner of peace, which will serve to remind the combatants that if the folly of war leads them to the destruction of human life, a higher love and a higher respect for things eternal should compel them to treat as sacred the patrimony of art, science and history which must remain untouched unless civilization itself is to be obliterated from the face of the earth.

The president of the Roerich Museum of New York, Mr. Louis L. Horch, was also present at the signing of the treaty. He expressed his appreciation of the event in the following words:

The signing of an inter-American treaty based on the Roerich Pact at the White House today on the occasion of Pan American Day, is indeed a great and significant step in the unifying of the Pan American countries, and in cementing the bonds of friendship and cooperation between these nations.

It is of especial significance that this historic event takes place under the dome of the White House, through the noble gesture of President Roosevelt, who has honored this solemn occasion by his presence and message. At a time when nations are in stress due to impending disturbances which threaten the peace of the world, it is significant that the Americas are the first nations to embrace this treaty in the cause of human progress. Thus the signing of the treaty is a step forward in the realization of the "good neighbor" policy of President Roosevelt, and thus a cultural pact has become an instrument and force in advancing the solidarity of the Americas. In extending his enlightened support to this project, which is linking the Americas into a closer unit, President Roosevelt's name will be inscribed upon the annals of history as a champion of cultural unity, and a leader of world constructiveness.

The Roerich Pact, upon which this treaty has been based, was created by Nicholas Roerich to preserve the treasures of art, science and religion, the historic monuments and sites, against destruction in times of war and peace, and represents a symbol that the supreme achievements of human genius must be held as inviolate.

In its humanitarian implications this treaty can be compared to the Red Cross, and advances another step along the path of international rapprochement. The lofty and inspired creations of man throughout the ages take on an aspect of universality and belong in essence, not to one nation alone, but to the entire world; and it is therefore fitting that nations unite on a common vigilance to protect these irreplaceable creations. Thus each nation accepting this treaty will act as true guardian of the spiritual treasures of mankind, and the banner of peace will be unfurled as a symbol of neutrality and universality.

In behalf of the Roerich Museum, which has presented the Roerich Pact to the world, I wish to express our deepest appreciation to the director and members of the Pan American Union for their splendid efforts in promulgating this project, as well as to the Honorable Henry A. Wallace for his great support of this cause.

The Permanent Committee for the Advancement of the Roerich Pact, appointed by the Third International Convention held in Washington in 1933, has been furthering the adoption of the Roerich Pact among all nations of the world, and aims to carry out its purposes by assisting the signatory nations to list and catalog their cultural treasures. In order to signify these buildings, monuments and sites designated by the respective powers, they will be marked by a flag which was created by Nicholas Roerich and called the Banner of Peace.

The Roerich Pact and its Banner of Peace were designed not only for protection during times of war and destruction, but also to serve in peace as a reminder to the peoples that the treasures of humanity must be respected and safeguarded. It also aims to promote in the consciousness of the peoples of the world the true values and appreciation of culture, as well as the establishing of a mutual respect. For it has been seen that not only in periods of war but during internal disturbance, vandalism and mutilation of artistic treasures have taken place. Thus the unfurling of the banner of peace will help strengthen the understanding of the irreplaceability of these creations.

The pledge between nations which has been consummated today at the White House by 21 nations of the American continents, has put into effect an agreement respecting the inviolability of the products of the human genius, thus safeguarding the true heritage of man for posterity. This enlightening event marks a significant milestone in the cause of international understanding and friendship, as well as a step forward in the spiritual and cultural progress of mankind.

On this Pan American Day, we send salutations to our sister nations!

The signing of such a treaty by the American nations had its origin in article 3 of the Resolution on Immovable Monuments, approved on December 16, 1933, at the Seventh International Conference of American States meeting in Montevideo:

The Seventh International Conference of American States,
RESOLVES:

To recommend to the Governments of America which have not yet done so that they sign the "Roerich Pact", initiated by the Roerich Museum in the United States, and which has as its object the universal adoption of a flag, already designed and generally known, in order thereby to preserve in any time of danger all nationally and privately owned immovable monuments which form the cultural treasure of peoples.

Pursuant to this resolution, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union appointed a special committee on the Roerich Pact, which presented the following report at an early date:

The committee appointed by the Governing Board to report on the steps that might be taken by the Pan American Union to contribute to the realization of the idea originally expressed by Professor Nicholas Roerich and incorporated in the Pact for the Protection of Artistic and Scientific Institutions and Historic Monuments, the adoption of which was recommended to the nations of America by the Seventh International Conference of American States, has the honor to report as follows:

The committee has taken the fundamental principles of the instrument originally proposed by Professor Roerich as a universal pact and given them the form of an inter-American draft treaty, which is herewith submitted to the consideration of the Board.

The committee recommends that the Governments, members of the Union, be asked to grant their representatives on the Board plenary powers to subscribe to the pact, which is to be signed on April 14, 1935, or at an earlier date to be determined by the Board if all its members have received plenary powers before April 14, 1935.

After April 14, 1935, the pact will be open to accession by nonsignatory States.

WASHINGTON, D. C.

April 4, 1934.

(S) PEDRO M. ARDAYA
Minister of Venezuela.

(S) R. J. ALFARO
Minister of Panama.

(S) ROBERTO D. MELÉNDEZ
Charge d'Affaires of El Salvador.

The treaty in its final form was submitted to the Governing Board by the same committee on April 3, 1935, with the following report:

The undersigned members of the Special Committee on the Roerich Pact for the Protection of Artistic and Scientific Institutions and Historical Monuments, have the honor to submit to the Governing Board the instrument in the form in which it will be opened to signature and deposited in the Pan American Union on April 14, 1935.

The committee has made a slight verbal modification in the preamble. This change consists in the insertion of the text of the recommendation of the Seventh Conference instead of transcribing the phraseology of said resolution as had been done in the first paragraph of the preamble. As the recommendation of the conference was the origin of this treaty the committee believes it desirable that it be inserted textually in the preamble.

The committee in order to express clearly the idea of the resolution of the conference, that this treaty is to apply in time of peace, as well as in war, has stated this fact in the preamble and in the third paragraph of Article I.

The other modification which the committee suggests in the drafting of Article VI of the treaty is the omission of the words "members of the Pan American Union." The omission of this phrase would leave the treaty open to the signature, accession, or adherence, of other States. In suggesting this change the committee had in view the fact that the pact was originally conceived as a treaty open to the signature or accession of all countries, that that was the form and the scope of the Pact which the Seventh Conference had under consideration in making its recommendation, and that as the Pact contains principles of universal value and utility, the purpose of the treaty can be more completely achieved if it be opened to the signature, accession, or adherence of all States. Under analogous circumstances and for similar reasons, the Supervisory Committee recommended, and the Governing Board resolved, to open to the accession of all States the Convention on the Nationality of Women.

WASHINGTON, D. C.

February 6, 1935.

- (S) PEDRO M. ARCAÑA,
Minister of Venezuela.
- (S) R. J. ALFARO,
Minister of Panama.
- (S) HÉCTOR DAVID CASTRO,
Minister of El Salvador.

TREATY ON THE PROTECTION OF ARTISTIC AND SCIENTIFIC INSTITUTIONS AND HISTORIC MONUMENTS

The High Contracting Parties, animated by the purpose of giving conventional form to the postulates of the Resolution approved on December 16, 1933, by all the States represented at the Seventh International Conference of American States, held at Montevideo, which recommended to "the Governments of America which have not yet done so that they sign the 'Roerich Pact', initiated by the Roerich Museum in the United States, and which has as its object, the universal adoption of a flag, already designed and generally known, in order thereby to preserve in any time of danger all nationally and privately owned immovable monuments which form the cultural treasure of peoples", have resolved to conclude a treaty with that end in view, and to the effect that the treasures of culture be respected and protected in time of war and in peace, have agreed upon the following articles:

ARTICLE I

The historic monuments, museums, scientific, artistic, educational and cultural institutions shall be considered as neutral and as such respected and protected by belligerents.

The same respect and protection shall be due to the personnel of the institutions mentioned above.

The same respect and protection shall be accorded to the historic monuments, museums, scientific, artistic, educational and cultural institutions in time of peace as well as in war.

ARTICLE II

The neutrality of, and protection and respect due to, the monuments and institutions mentioned in the preceding article, shall be recognized in the entire expanse of territories subject to the sovereignty of each of the signatory and acceding States, without any discrimination as to the State allegiance of said monuments and institutions. The respective Governments agree to adopt the measures of internal legislation necessary to insure said protection and respect.

ARTICLE III

In order to identify the monuments and institutions mentioned in article I, use may be made of a distinctive flag (red circle with a triple red sphere in the circle on a white background) in accordance with the model attached to this treaty.

ARTICLE IV

The signatory Governments and those who accede to this treaty, shall send to the Pan American Union, at the time of signature or accession, or at any time thereafter, a list of the monuments and institutions for which they desire the protection agreed to in this treaty.

The Pan American Union, when notifying the Governments of signatures or accessions, shall also send the list of monuments and institutions mentioned in this article, and shall inform the other Governments of any changes in said list.

ARTICLE V

The monuments and institutions mentioned in article I shall cease to enjoy the privileges recognized in the present treaty in case they are made use of for military purposes.

ARTICLE VI

The States which do not sign the present treaty on the date it is opened for signature, may sign or adhere to it at any time.

ARTICLE VII

The instruments of accession, as well as those of ratification and denunciation of the present treaty, shall be deposited with the Pan American Union, which shall communicate notice of the act of deposit to the other signatory or acceding States.

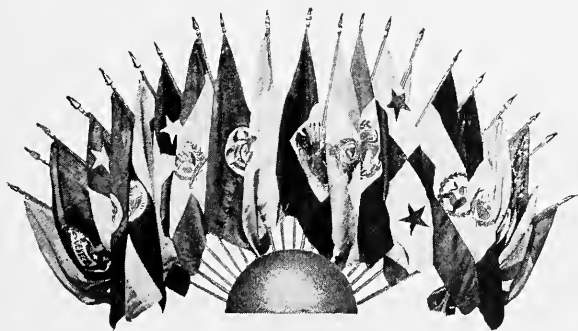
ARTICLE VIII

The present treaty may be denounced at any time by any of the signatory or acceding States, and the denunciation shall go into effect three months after notice of it has been given to the other signatory or acceding States.

In Witness Whereof, the undersigned Plenipotentiaries, after having deposited their full powers found to be in due and proper form, sign this treaty on behalf of their respective governments, and affix thereto their seals, on the dates appearing opposite their signatures.

For the Argentine Republic:
 FELIPE A. ESPIL. April 15, 1935
 For Bolivia:
 ENRIQUE FINOT. April 15, 1935
 For Brazil:
 OSWALDO ARANHA. April 15, 1935
 For Chile:
 M. TRUCCO. April 15, 1935
 For Colombia:
 M. LÓPEZ PUMAREJO. April 15,
 1935
 For Costa Rica:
 MAN. GONZÁLEZ Z. April 15, 1935
 For Cuba:
 GUILLERMO PATTERSON. April 15,
 1935
 For the Dominican Republic:
 RAF. BRACHE. April 15, 1935
 For Ecuador:
 C. E. ALFARO. April 15, 1935
 For El Salvador:
 HÉCTOR DAVID CASTRO. April 15,
 1935
 For Guatemala:
 ADRIÁN RECINOS. April 15, 1935

For Haiti:
 A. BLANCHET. April 15, 1935
 For Honduras:
 M. PAZ BARAONA. April 15, 1935
 For Mexico:
 F. CASTILLO NÁJERA. April 15,
 1935
 For Nicaragua:
 HENRI DE BAYLE. April 15, 1935
 For Panama:
 R. J. ALFARO. April 15, 1935
 For Paraguay:
 ENRIQUE BORDENAVE. April 15,
 1935
 For Peru:
 M. DE FREYRE Y S. April 15, 1935
 For the United States of America:
 HENRY A. WALLACE. April 15,
 1935
 For Uruguay:
 J. RICHLING. April 15, 1935
 For Venezuela:
 PEDRO M. ARCAÑA. April 15, 1935



BOUNDARY SETTLEMENT BETWEEN THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC AND HAITI

THE Presidents of the Dominican Republic and Haiti issued on February 27, 1935, a joint statement concerning the settlement of the last remaining difficulties in connection with the demarcation of their common boundary, of which statement a translation follows:

On October 18, 1933, in the border cities of Dajabón and Ouana-minthe, General Rafael L. Trujillo Molina, President of the Dominican Republic, and Dr. Sténio Vincent, President of Haiti, began a series of direct personal conversations with the purpose of agreeing on a plan to end difficulties in marking the boundary line between the two republics, under way in accordance with the treaty of January 21, 1929.

These conversations were successfully continued, first in Port-au-Prince during the visit of President Trujillo Molina to Haiti last November, then in Santo Domingo in February of this year, where President Vincent was the guest of honor of the Dominican Government and people. All but one of the matters pending were decided in Port-au-Prince, and that was satisfactorily resolved in Santo Domingo. The long-standing and vexatious boundary question has thus been happily settled and the clauses of the 1929 treaty have been scrupulously observed.

The difficulties arising, as stated in report no. 89 of the Commission to Demarcate the Dominican-Haitian Boundary, were the following:

1. The source of the Libón River.
2. The boundary line to the Artibonite River from marker no. 805 on the road from Restauración to Bánica.
3. The boundary line between San Pedro and Fort Cachiman.
4. The boundary line between the source of the Carrizal River, Rancho de las Mujeres, and Cañada Miguel.
5. The boundary line between Gros-Mare and the source of the Pédernales River.

It was agreed to solve these problems as follows:

1. The headwaters or source of the Libón River was fixed at the confluence of the Marigoyenne and Ténèbres Rivers, the waters from that point downstream being known as the Libón River. The boundary, consequently, will run straight from marker no. 48 on Mont Griné to the head of the Libón.
2. The second difficulty was settled by the understanding concerning the Lamiel protocol.

3. From the point SP4, marked by the Dominican-Haitian Boundary Commission, at the place known as San Pedro on the Macasias River the line will continue over the tops of the hills, descending to Tumba la Rosa, passing through Dame-Jeanne Cassée and through the cemetery at the point already established in Fort Cachiman; from there to the Carrizal River the *camino real* (highway) will be left in Haitian territory, and the line will follow the Carrizal River upstream to its source.

4. The line will run from the source of the Carrizal to Mare Zephir (Rancho de las Mujeres), passing by the house of Madame Salomon, and thence to Cañada Miguel.

5. The line will run from Gros-Mare to the well-defined gorge in Mare Orange, thence to Bonite Spring, the headwaters of the Pédernales River. The intermediate boundary markers will be placed later.

With the settlement of these five difficulties which had been pending and which had hindered the execution of the survey agreed upon by the treaty of January 21, 1929, the controversy on the subject of the execution of the aforesaid treaty is definitely ended.

In the interests of peace and to strengthen the ties of friendship which should exist between countries, the two Governments considered it advisable to rectify the 1929 boundary in the sector from the point on the *camino real* (which goes from Bánica to Restauración and crosses the Libón River at Passe Maguane) to the point at which the *camino real* crosses the Artibonite opposite the town of Bánica. It was agreed, however, that this rectification should not lessen to the slightest degree nor prejudice at any time the ease of transit assured in that section of the boundary to Dominican citizens by the treaty of January 21, 1929.

The two Governments also agreed to draw up an additional protocol to establish as the boundary line between Passe Maguane and Bánica a highway on the banks of the Libón and the Artibonite Rivers. The two Governments will share in the expense of building the road, which will be constructed according to specifications to be determined in the protocol. Citizens of both Haiti and the Dominican Republic will be assured equal rights to the waters of these two rivers in the protocol which will be drafted as soon as the engineers appointed by the two Governments shall have surveyed the route.

At the meeting of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union on April 3, the Minister of Haiti, M. Albert Blanchet, addressed his colleagues as follows:

Mr. CHAIRMAN:

It has not been in vain that, looking always towards the noble ideal of fruitful peace between the American states, we have established the excellent custom of regarding the 21 nations which we represent as members of the great Pan American Union family.



HIS EXCELLENCY GENERAL RAFAEL L. TRUJILLO,
PRESIDENT OF THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC.



HIS EXCELLENCY M. STÉNIO VINCENT,
PRESIDENT OF HAITI.

And it is as members of that great family and because each of us individually and all of us together are fervently and tirelessly interested in its welfare and prosperity, as well as in its material, spiritual, intellectual, and moral progress, that we have a natural tendency to rejoice in common over our good fortune and likewise to feel in common the dangers which alarm us and the misfortunes which befall us.

During these troubled and difficult times through which the world is passing we of this hemisphere also live a life full of uncertainty, perplexities, and anguish, a condition which threatens to become chronic. Therefore we cannot afford to let important events happening in the family pass without notice, especially those events which by their character and importance transcend the borders of our respective interests and have the virtue of encouraging and serving as a good example to others far away.

My dear colleagues, I have the honor—and permit me to add—the great pleasure of announcing officially, in the name of His Excellency the President of Haiti, M. Sténio Vincent, and in the name of the people of Haiti as a whole, that there is no longer a boundary problem, question, or difficulty between the Republic of Haiti and the Dominican Republic.

President Vincent and President Trujillo, embodying the common aspirations of the two peoples which share the sovereignty over “the marvellous isle”, have manfully and wisely decided to put an end to the old and at times bloody frontier dispute through an agreement negotiated in an atmosphere of mutual confidence, fraternal friendship, and reciprocal understanding of the true national interests of each with such political foresight that the diplomatic instrument, even before being ratified by the respective National Assemblies, received the unanimous and enthusiastic approval of the two Republics which, to quote the felicitous expression of that great Dominican prelate, Monsignor Nouel, have at last “marked the boundary in order to efface it.”

The Minister of the Dominican Republic, Señor Rafael Brache, then addressed the Governing Board in the following words:

MR. CHAIRMAN, MEMBERS OF THE GOVERNING BOARD:

Upon returning to Washington to join again the distinguished representatives who compose this Board, I have been overjoyed and filled with true optimism at finding again among its members, ennobled by their successful work and sterling qualities, those who were my esteemed colleagues in previous years and at finding new and illustrious companions who, like the former, are justly recognized as diplomats of international repute; and finally at finding as chairman of this Board His Excellency Secretary Hull, whom I had the privilege of meeting and admiring at the last Economic Conference at London, when in the midst of conflicting interests he fought as the most gallant champion of a crusade which sought to improve the world's economic welfare through the reduction of tariff barriers, which under a definite and rational plan all nations should have accepted.

I take the opportunity which this meeting offers me not only to express my happiness at returning to cooperate with you, as far as my modest ability permits, in the realization of the noble ideals which have made of this institution the sacred edifice where American Fraternity officiates spiritually and materially on a basis of justice and equality, but to repeat officially the text of the cablegram which was sent by my country's Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, Dr. Arturo Logroño, through the Dominican Legation, to the Chairman of the Governing Board, and which says:

"I take pleasure in communicating to Your Excellency that during the visit of President Vincent of Haiti to President Trujillo Molina of the Dominican Republic, the old and troublesome boundary question between the two Republics was finally and completely settled when through a direct agreement between the two Presidents the difficulties which had arisen in the execution of the boundary treaty of 1929 were solved. Although both nations are fervent signatories of the principal conciliation and arbitration conventions in effect throughout the world, this agreement was achieved by direct negotiation between the two Governments, thanks to the policy of understanding and sincere amity followed by Presidents Trujillo and Vincent. It constitutes a happy event which satisfies the honor and the interests of the two nations and fully opens the way for a propitious development of the cultural and economic relations between the two Republics. President Trujillo, feeling proud of the fruitful effort which he has made for the peace of his country, a member of the family of nations, has considered this an appropriate occasion to address the Presidents of the Spanish American nations suggesting the use of their good offices in fraternal and concerted action with a view to inducing Bolivia and Paraguay to end the armed struggle which unfortunately stains with blood one of the richest regions of South America and to seek a solution of the tragic controversy by pacific means."

The press of all nations has given extensive publicity and high praise to both Republics for the amicable solution of this question.

The executives of all countries, the foreign offices of all Governments, the League of Nations, the Director General of the Pan American Union and other persons and institutions that labor fervently for the maintenance of universal peace have sent congratulatory messages to President Trujillo and the Dominican Foreign Office on the occasion of the happy and definite settlement of its boundary problem. The answers given by the Presidents of the Spanish American nations to the opportune message of President Trujillo suggesting the joint and fraternal offer of their good offices so that the sister Republics of Bolivia and Paraguay may put an end to the bloody armed struggle of annihilation have likewise been satisfactory because of their manifest spirit of solidarity.

On declaring with patriotic emotion that I am proud that my country, geographically small but great and glorious in history, has happily solved its old boundary problem, I may properly add at this time and in this place that President Trujillo Molina and President Vincent have become worthy not only of the legitimate recognition and gratitude of their fellow citizens but of the gratitude of the world as well, because they have contributed with their noble example to stimulate and orient the pacifist tendencies which unfortunately seem to be wavering in Africa and the Far East and perhaps have been completely defeated in a large portion of continental Europe.

President Trujillo Molina, a brilliant soldier in war, has also proved with the eloquence of deeds that he is a glorious soldier in peace. In his firm love of peace he has not only supported all initiatives seeking to encourage and maintain international harmony but as an admirer of the apostles of that ideal suggested the name of His Excellency President Franklin Delano Roosevelt for the Nobel Peace Prize in recognition of the sincere devotion with which this great statesman has followed that noble ideal.

On this day which will be a happy recollection for me, I express my most sincere wishes for the reestablishment and strengthening of peace in all the world, and especially in the nations of the New World, since America is destined to be and no doubt will be the great sanctuary and the last stronghold in which, stricken down in defense of suffering humanity, civilization may take refuge, if a crisis comes when good judgment and faith in a pitying Christ are lacking and we fail to pray: "Glory to God in the highest, peace on earth, good will to men."

The Minister of Costa Rica, Señor Manuel González Z., then presented the following resolution:

WHEREAS, Haiti and the Dominican Republic, sister nations and twin daughters of ancient Hispaniola, beloved of the Great Admiral and the final resting place of his venerated bones, have just settled their long standing boundary controversy by the honorable means of a direct fraternal understanding; and

WHEREAS, this act of noble altruism constitutes an instructive precedent of deep moral significance for the nations of this continent where, unfortunately, boundary questions have frequently given rise to great evils and profound enmities motivating in many cases armed strife in which entire generations have been sacrificed, thus implanting hatred and rancor between nations called by their common origin and their natural destiny to live in perfect harmony to the benefit of all and to their common increase in greatness;

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union, sincerely rejoicing in the news of this felicitous event,

RESOLVES:

To send to the people and Governments of the sister nations of Haiti and the Dominican Republic its cordial congratulations in the hope that the shining example which they have set may serve as an example whenever similar disputes may arise between the nations of the Pan American Union.

The Director General is requested to transmit this resolution to the Ministries of Foreign Affairs of the nations concerned and to cause it to be published in the next issues of the BULLETIN of this institution.

In laying the resolution before the Board the Hon. Cordell Hull, chairman, said:

I cannot refrain from saying just a word expressive of the deep satisfaction I know each of us and our respective governments feel at this heartening news that two of our sister Republics have had a will to peace, and a disposition for the peaceful settlement of a long-standing boundary question, to such a degree that they have been able to come together in a spirit of justice, fair dealing, and fair play, and to work out a thoroughly satisfactory adjustment. Just now when so many other governments, in other parts of the world, are seemingly unable to come together in this spirit, at least to the extent necessary to make possible the peaceful and satisfactory settlement of differences, the example which these two American Republics are setting should make a deep impression in every foreign office, in every capital of the world. I know I voice the sentiments of my colleagues on this Board when I say that we join in extending our most enthusiastic congratulations, and in paying the tribute of our admiration to these two sister Republics who, amidst all the fog and confusion that pervades international affairs in so many parts of the world, have set this splendid example. I hope that it may be long remembered, and that each of us will take pains to keep it alive wherever we go.

I suggest that the members of this Board signify their assent by rising. The resolution is unanimously agreed to and the Director General will forward this resolution to the Governments of the Dominican Republic and of Haiti.

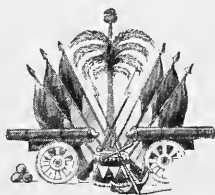
After the resolution had been adopted, the Minister of the Dominican Republic graciously said to the Minister of Costa Rica, "I wish to express to you, my dear Doctor, whose soul is white, as white as the ideals of peace which you have always advocated, the most sincere thanks on behalf of the Dominican people, of my Government, and

of President Trujillo Molina. I wish to extend my thanks also to His Excellency the Secretary of State, Mr. Hull, for his beautiful and significant remarks, and to all the members of the Board for the cordial manner in which they have accepted the resolution proposed by the Minister of Costa Rica."

The Minister of Haiti also extended to the Minister the thanks of both his Government and himself for the resolution.

Referring to the boundary settlement between the two countries the President of the United States described it as an outstanding example of statesmanship and international achievement. The President of Bolivia praised the true American spirit shown, and the President of Costa Rica commended the solution of the boundary question which had divided the two nations for 91 years. The President of Ecuador considered it a magnificent monument erected as a tribute to cooperation, racial vigor, and the great destiny which history reserves for the American continent. The President of El Salvador expressed his deep rejoicing at so notable an event, and the President of Guatemala declared it to be a noble and patriotic example of civic virtue given to the world and to the cause of peace in America by the two Chief Executives. The President of Nicaragua said that the happy conclusion of the boundary question by the Dominican Republic and Haiti had helped to stabilize peace in America. The President of Panama described it as a lofty example of Americanism, and the President of Paraguay as a superlative manifestation of concord. The President of Venezuela expressed his heartfelt satisfaction at the example which the two nations and their distinguished Presidents had set. And finally the Secretary of State of the United States declared that the settlement arrived at is a most significant event in Pan American annals and clearly demonstrates that good will among neighbors will surmount any difference arising between them.

Messages of congratulation were also received from the League of Nations, the President of Spain, and the Pan American Union.





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HIS EXCELLENCY SEÑOR DON MIGUEL LÓPEZ PUMAREJO,
ENVOY EXTRAORDINARY AND MINISTER PLENIPOTENTIARY OF COLOMBIA TO
THE UNITED STATES AND MEMBER OF THE GOVERNING BOARD
OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION.

SEÑOR DON MIGUEL LÓPEZ PUMAREJO MINISTER OF COLOMBIA IN THE UNITED STATES

SEÑOR Don Miguel López Pumarejo, the newly appointed Minister of Colombia to the United States, presented his letters of credence to President Roosevelt on April 15, 1935. Upon receiving them the President took occasion to say that he had very happy memories of the visit of President Alfonso López to this country and of his own visit to Colombia.

Señor López Pumarejo was born in Honda, a village in the Department of Tolima, on August 11, 1892. Owing to the limited educational facilities of the town, he and his brothers received their early training from their mother and from private tutors. Later the family moved to Bogotá, where he attended the Colegio de Bernal. After graduating with honors from that school, he was sent to the United States, where he attended Chestnut Hill Academy, Worcester Academy and Manhattan College, New York City. His education was completed in Dr. Schmidt's Institute in Saint Gall, Switzerland. He then returned to Colombia, where as a member of the firm of Pedro A. López y Cía. he entered the coffee business.

In 1923 Señor López Pumarejo became interested in transportation and agriculture, to which he devoted himself until 1930, when he was appointed New York representative of the National Federation of Coffee Growers of Colombia, a position which he was holding when appointed to the diplomatic post he now fills. On March 6, 1935, under the auspices of the Green Coffee Association of New York City, Inc., a luncheon was given in his honor by the friends there with whom he had had business relations for the past five years. On the 14th of the same month he was the guest of honor at a dinner given by the Colombia-American Chamber of Commerce and the Colombian colony in New York, at which he was made honorary president of the former organization.

While in Colombia, Señor López Pumarejo was president of the Chamber of Commerce of Bogotá, representative in the National Congress, member of the municipal council of Bogotá, rector (dean) of the Law School of the Universidad Libre, founder of the Gimnasio Femenino, and member of the governing board of the Gimnasio Moderno in Bogotá. (The two latter are secondary schools for girls and boys, respectively.) He was also a charter member of the Country and Rotary Clubs and a member of the Gun and Jockey Clubs.

The diplomatic representative of Colombia represents his country on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.

PAN AMERICAN DAY¹

By CORDELL HULL

Secretary of State of the United States and Chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union

IT is a real privilege to say a few words on this day dedicated to Pan Americanism;—a day which has come to have a vital meaning to all the Republics of the western world. I find true inspiration in the thought that tonight my words are carried by short wave to the uttermost confines of the American continent and I desire to avail myself of this opportunity to send a warm word of greeting to my friends and listeners throughout the Americas.

It is a happy circumstance that this year's celebration of Pan American Day comes at a time when the spirit of Pan American cooperation gives evidence of unusual strength. The recent conference at Montevideo gave to the world the inspiring spectacle of the assembled delegates of the American Republics endeavoring to bring to an end an unhappy conflict between two sister nations. Although it was not possible to secure an agreement between the contending parties, the spirit of continental responsibility for the maintenance of peace which was demonstrated by these efforts must be a source of unending satisfaction to every one interested in the Pan American movement.

It is a notable fact and one which means much to the future of Pan Americanism that the nations of this continent have come to realize that the maintenance of peace calls for national readjustments and even sacrifices quite as significant and oftentimes more difficult to accept than those called for by war. We have heretofore regarded peace as something essentially negative, merely the absence of conflict. The American Republics are now beginning to see that to guarantee peace, nations must be willing to meet international differences in a spirit of compromise and even at times to make positive sacrifices. We have a striking instance of this fact in the recent negotiations between Colombia and Peru for the settlement of the difficulties that arose between them. Both nations have shown not only a desire but a determination to reestablish close and friendly relations, worthy of the best traditions of America. Furthermore, it has been heartening to observe the statesmanship shown by Haiti and the Dominican Republic in recently adjusting their long standing boundary question.

¹ Address delivered at the concert of Latin American music which took place at the Pan American Union on April 15, 1935.

And finally, may I refer further to a third principle which the American nations are gradually bringing to fruition, namely, the elimination of artificial barriers to inter-American trade. The standards set by the Montevideo Conference, the regional trade treaties negotiated between various American states, the reciprocal trade treaties now being negotiated by this Government with a number of other American countries, all point not only toward a freer movement of goods between the American Republics, but to the gradual elimination of the international irritation that inevitably accompanies artificial trade barriers. The nations of the western world are beginning to appreciate the injury which these barriers are inflicting on national progress and prosperity. Where other sections of the world have failed, America must and will succeed. The recent progress in eliminating the obstacles to commerce is but an indication of the larger results that we must accomplish in the immediate future. With the new spirit now prevailing no one can entertain doubts as to the ultimate success of our efforts.

The economic discussions between representatives of the American governments will be continued in May next, when the Pan American Commercial Conference meets at Buenos Aires pursuant to a resolution adopted at Montevideo. The organizing committee appointed by the government of Argentina, under the chairmanship of the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Saavedra Lamas, has been actively engaged in making preparations for the conference, and it is confidentially expected that the discussions will give added impetus to the removal of existing barriers and will stimulate commerce between the Republics of America.

Movements for international cooperation necessarily advance slowly, but if we look back upon the period that has elapsed since the founding of the Pan American Union we begin to realize not only the important accomplishment of the past but also the larger promise of the future. We are moving in the right direction.

May I here venture the opinion that perhaps all of the statesmen and civic leaders of this hemisphere have not yet fully realized the far-reaching nature and effects of the accomplishments of the 21 American Republics at the Seventh International Conference of American States at Montevideo.

At the very moment when skeptics in other parts of the world were proclaiming the entire futility of international conferences, the American nations at Montevideo were demonstrating the complete success of the international conference as a means of settling vital questions and of international cooperation in countless ways to their vast mutual benefit. After international conferences at London and Geneva had failed to function at all effectively in the face of the chaotic economic world conditions which obtained, and under the existing

threat to the peace of the world, the historic conference at Montevideo with singular unanimity proclaimed the one existing comprehensive program for business recovery, and with the same unanimity agreed to ratify five treaties and conventions to promote and maintain peace in the Western Hemisphere.

Many a nation is today continuing to plunge headlong in the direction of extreme nationalism, mindless of its disastrous effects upon economic rehabilitation and the promotion of conditions of peace. Under this spell of wild and mad extremism, nations in many parts of the globe are arming to the teeth and are thus more securely blocking business recovery in the world at large.

Facing these suicidal movements and conditions, the nations of this hemisphere have a solemn duty and a marvelous opportunity for service to themselves and the world by preaching and practicing the simple principles necessary to insure the restoration of mutual comprehension, friendship, practical economic cooperation, and above all, the spirit that must underlie these desirable and necessary international relationships. Let us proclaim anew these Montevideo proposals for international cooperation, political, commercial, and cultural. Let us appeal to all nations to join and to march forward together under the banner of peace, commerce, and honest friendship.

Let those who repudiate these righteous principles and seek to retard human progress and to foment strife and to provoke war be characterized by all enlightened nations as enemies of civilization and as world outlaws.



PLANS FOR THE PAN AMERICAN HIGHWAY PROJECT

By E. W. JAMES

*Chief, Division of Highway Transport, U. S. Bureau of Public Roads, Department of
Agriculture*

THE first suggestion for a canal through the Isthmus of Panama appears to have been made about 1523 by Álvaro de Saavedra in a report to the Spanish King, Charles V. The canal was opened to traffic in 1914, almost 400 years later. The first suggestion for a Pan American system of highways was made at the Fifth International Conference of American States, assembled in Santiago, Chile, in 1923,¹ and in 1933 the first reconnaissance survey of a feasible continuous route between the United States and Panama was completed. The report, which went into great detail, was issued in December 1934 and is now available.

The Congress of the United States has authorized the continuation of surveys and the beginning of construction, having made in June 1934 two separate appropriations for these purposes amounting in all to \$1,075,000.

The appropriations are carried in the Hayden-Cartwright Act (Public. No. 393, 73d Congress) which provides for \$75,000 to be expended in continuing the reconnaissance surveys under terms and conditions similar to those governing funds previously furnished, and in the Emergency Appropriation Act, fiscal year 1935, which under the Department of State title authorizes the use of \$1,000,000 for surveys and construction, in countries where reconnaissance has already been completed, under conditions of cooperation satisfactory to the President.

It would appear, therefore, that the dream of an inter-American highway and of a system of roads connecting the several countries of South America is not to be so long in coming to realization as was the Panama Canal. In fact, long sections of highway have already been built and several of the Governments, as they report, have definite plans for continuing work "as rapidly as the national resources permit."

The extension of the route into South America from Panama City and the connecting of the several South American capitals present

¹ Resolution on Cooperation in the Improvement of Communications, Part II, Paragraph 8, adopted on May 12, 1923.



Courtesy of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States.

THE PAN AMERICAN HIGHWAY PROJECT.

This map outlines the general route of the Pan American Highway from the United States-Mexican border southward and is based on existing roads and on reconnaissance surveys. Because of the small scale of the map, most of the alternate routes as well as suggested ferry connections between Panama and South America are not shown.

interesting and difficult problems. The entrance into the South American continent by way of the Darien region in the eastern part of the Republic of Panama at once introduces the first difficulty.

Probably no white man has ever traveled between Central and South America overland. Stephens² refers to Indians coming to Esquipulas, in Guatemala, from Peru and Mexico to attend religious festivals. He distinctly implies that the trip from Mexico was the more difficult, leading to the surmise that Chibchas or Quichés

² Stephens, John Lloyd, "Incidents of Travel in Central America, Chiapas, and Yucatan," 1841. Stephens was a special agent sent by President Van Buren of the United States to Central America in 1839.

coming from the southern country may have used piraguas or other native craft. There is no record indicating that any human being, except the Indians, has ever traveled longitudinally between the present Republic of Panama and Colombia, South America. In connection with the numerous surveys made to determine a feasible location for an inter-oceanic canal in the areas of Panama and Darien, many routes across the continent were traveled, but no party on any of these surveys made the trip from Panama to Colombia. Troutwine did not, nor did any of the others employed by Frederick M. Kelly in his public-spirited efforts to determine the existence of a satisfactory line for a canal; Selfridge did not, nor did any of his assistants sent out by the United States Government during the years 1870 to 1873; Shunk did not go through in 1891 when his corps reconnoitered through this region for the Inter-Continental Railway. The nearest he came to completing the trip was to identify with a field telescope what he believed to be the same low pass, approached from the two directions—from Panama and Medellín, Colombia.

It is possible that this part of the route, at least for the time being, will have to be avoided by means of a ferry from Cristóbal to Cartagena, to Puerto Colombia, or even to La Guaira, or from Titumate to Nicocli across the Gulf of Urabá.

In Colombia much of a feasible route has already been constructed and is open to wheeled vehicles during most of the year.

If an overland connection is made, it may pass the settlement of Río Sucio, near the mouth of the river of that name, or go southward on the Atrato side of the Baudó Cordillera and cross at La Quebra near Bolívar, reaching the Cauca at Puente Jericó. From Río Sucio a feasible route is known to exist by Dabeiba and Cañas Gordas to Ciudad Antioquia, and over the western cordillera to Medellín. From Nicocli, if the Atrato ferry is there developed, the route from that port might follow the old *Camino Real* (King's Highway) to the vicinity of Dabeiba, and thence go to Medellín. This is the route, Nicocli to Medellín, which constitutes the well-known Antioqueño project of the *Carretera al Mar* (Highway to the Sea). An alternate route from Nicocli would go by way of Montería to a connection, at or near Sincelejo, with the projected Colombian highway from Cartagena across the plains of the Province of Bolívar to the Cauca River at Valdivia, and thence by Yarumal to Medellín.

The use of a ferry to Cartagena or Puerto Colombia would require the same connection between Cartagena and Medellín.

The remote possibility of a ferry passage to La Guaira would result in a quite different series of connections. First, the fine connecting highway between that port and Caracas would be followed, then the recently completed route via Valencia to the Colombian border near Cúcuta. Thence, the graded road through Pamplona, Málaga, Tunja



THE CARACAS-LOS TEQUES ROAD IN VENEZUELA.

In the event that a ferry connection between Panama and La Guaira be established, the present Simón Bolívar Highway would become part of the great inter-American road system.



Photograph by Stephen Q. Hayes.

AN OLD SPANISH BRIDGE IN COLOMBIA.

Colombia already has considerable road mileage which can be utilized in the Pan American Highway.

and Los Pueblos to Bogotá would be used and a connection made from Bogotá to the Magdalena via the Cambao Road or by Melgar to Girardot. From the Magdalena the route would require a line to Ibagué, and from there go over the famous Quindío Pass to Armenia, and thence to the Cauca River. The route from Caracas would follow what has come to be called, I believe, the "Simón Bolívar Highway."

It is apparent that the Caracas route would make it impossible to include Medellín on the main highway, and it would, of course, leave undeveloped an overland route between the continents. Since the Simón Bolívar Highway is so far advanced, that route would, in any case, constitute an integral part of a Pan American system of highways for there is no other feasible land route at this time in and out of Venezuela.

From Yarumal, or Ciudad Antioquia, a road exists through Medellín to Santa Bárbara, and from Pereira to the Ecuadorean frontier. This lies generally up the Cauca Valley and through the Nudo de Pasto, and except for a short section between Santander and Tunía, much of the highway is a well built gravel road, especially around Cali in the Valle del Cauca.

In Ecuador, from Tulcán at the Colombian border through Ibarra to Quito, a road exists over which buses have operated; consequently the general route of a highway, at least as far as Quito, is not subject to much difference of opinion. But from Quito very important and entirely different alternatives present themselves.

Even in the Cauca Valley in Colombia, at elevations between 3,000 and 4,000 feet, the line is in an interior valley of the Andes, and this still is the condition at Quito at an elevation of 9,500 feet. The decision must be made between coming down from the high Andes to the Pacific coastal plain in the vicinity of Quito, Ecuador, of Cerro de Pasco or of Arequipa, Peru, reaching the coast at Guayaquil, Lima, or Camaná (or Mollendo), respectively; or, on the other hand, of remaining in the Andean cordillera southward from Quito.

It is not pertinent in this outline of possible routes to enumerate the alternate considerations applicable. It suffices to say that the coastal route will mean many miles where population is sparse, and even where desert conditions with few topographic difficulties prevail; while the upland route will accommodate a large portion of the population, connect many large cities, and traverse a country of wonderful mountain scenery, the magnificence of which probably cannot be equaled on so extensive and far-flung a scale anywhere in the world. The two thousand miles of continuous mountain grandeur are beyond description, almost beyond conception. This Andean route would probably pass through Riobamba, Cuenca, Loja, Cajamarca, Huancaayo, and Ayacucho to Cuzco and finally to Puno, at the northern



MOUNT CHIMBORAZO, ECUADOR.

The international highway may pass the foot of this mighty Andean peak, ascended by Bolivar in 1822 during the course of the Ecuadorean struggle for independence.



Courtesy of the Carnegie Institution of Washington.

A COVERED BRIDGE IN THE PERUVIAN ANDES.

Straw roofs on numerous bridges in northern Peru provide shelter for travelers and retard the decay of the plank flooring.

end of Lake Titicaca, where junction would be made with a road from the coast.³

Both the high and the low lines should be studied, as well as the supremely difficult links between them, and in any case, the route "down the hill" through Arequipa or near there will have to be used to connect with a line down the Chilean coast.

From Puno on Lake Titicaca above Arequipa a route is proposed through La Paz, Cochabamba, Santa Cruz de la Sierra (the region of *Green Hell*) and Puerto Suárez to Corumbá, and then to Rio de Janeiro. Another route should extend, by way of Oruro and Sucre, to Tucumán and the Paraguay Valley, Rosario and other cities, and Buenos Aires.



ROAD BUILDING IN PERU.

An upland route through Peru would embrace stretches of existing road, and in particular that from Abancay to Ayacucho, which was completed a few years ago.

The line down the Chilean coast, if it goes no farther than Valparaíso will then turn again toward the Andes and cross by way of Santiago and Los Andes to the well-known city of Mendoza in Argentina. A road exists now between Santiago, Chile, and Mendoza, but like the railroad line in the same general region, it is closed many months in the year by snow.

To avoid this condition, there should be a careful investigation of a more southerly and lower pass between Puerto Montt and Lake Nahuel Huapí in "the Switzerland of America" where a projected line is said to challenge the world in beauty of scenery of all kinds. It is in the latitude of New York, in a region of green forests, lakes,

³ See page 429. A road is now under construction.—EDITOR.



Courtesy of "The Grace Log".

ROAD THROUGH THE BOLIVIAN ANDES.

Two routes from Bolivia to the Atlantic coast are under consideration—one directly eastward to Rio de Janeiro and the other southward to Buenos Aires.

hills and mountains that surpass anything Europe or the rest of the world can show, if we are to believe the few travelers who have given us accounts of the region. This pass to Nahuel Huapí is said to be almost entirely free from snow even in the winter months of the southern hemisphere.

But, even if this southern pass is developed, the road should turn northward to Mendoza, whence no topographic difficulties remain to Buenos Aires. The serious problem in this area will be to locate adequate supplies of surfacing material. From Mendoza the line can take many directions, the best probably being by way of Villa María.

These routes will provide connections between all the South American countries except Uruguay and Paraguay, and if Lima is included, will reach their capitals.

The total mileage from Panama to Buenos Aires on the shortest combination of routes is approximately 6,500 miles, and the total of all alternates is no less than 16,500 miles. The field work of reconnaissance, while uniformly difficult, will present no unusual requirements of organization except between Panama and the Atrato River Valley in Colombia, and between Santa Cruz de la Sierra in Bolivia

and the region to the west of Rio de Janeiro in Brazil. For these sections, the parties will have to be especially organized practically on a basis for exploration. Many sections, on the other hand, will not present such difficulties as have already been encountered north of Panama, as extensive areas on the Pacific Coast are practically free from tree growth or jungle. There the difficulties will be those of the desert.

In addition to the reconnaissance lines enumerated above, the appropriations now available provide for such instrument surveys as may be required in the countries where a line has already been reconnoitered, and such a construction program as funds permit.



AVENIDA RIO BRANCO, RIO DE JANEIRO.

The Brazilian capital with its magnificent vistas would be a fitting climax for the Pan American Highway.

It has been suggested that the construction of a series of bridges over major streams might well be undertaken at locations where existing roads will make such structures immediately useful either by connecting sections of road already wholly or partly improved, or by permitting the continuous extension of improved roads. There are many such locations along the reconnoitered route, and it would be possible to select major structures satisfactorily located in each of the countries concerned. In addition, there are numerous smaller bridges which could be brought into a construction program wherever a country is prepared to undertake the building or rebuilding of an existing trail or an earth road now passable only in the dry season.

The program for instrument surveys may include a continuous survey throughout the length of the reconnoitered route, omitting only those portions already established either by local surveys previously made by the highway authorities of the several countries, or by actual construction. In at least three of the Central American countries, Panama, Costa Rica and El Salvador, there is a substantial mileage included in these categories. If desired, on the other hand, only such instrument surveys will be undertaken at this time as may be necessary to establish the suitability of bridge locations, of sections of road proposed for immediate improvement, or of alignment for gradual and progressive improvement over a period of years. This



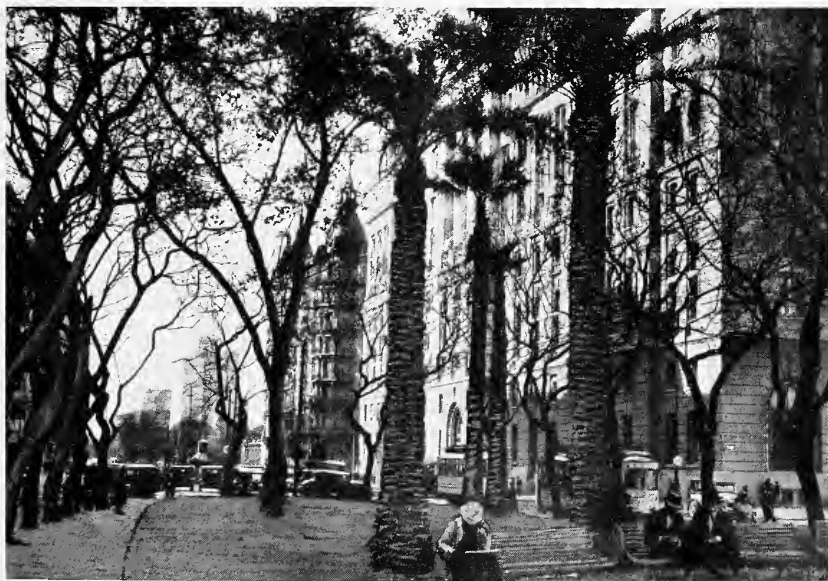
CALBUCO VOLCANO IN SOUTHERN CHILE.

An alternate route for the international highway across southern Argentina and Chile lies through a region of unsurpassable scenery.

last would assure the proper location of all work done along the line as funds or labor became available and add gradually to the betterment of the route even though large sums might not be expended at any one time. In one country at least it has been suggested that such a line, once established, would lead immediately to the opening of a cleared trail through a region at present almost, if not quite, impassable even to pack animals. In another country a definite suggestion has been made for a program of minor bridge construction and grade and alignment improvements, and the surfacing of present impassable sections, which will complete an all-weather road from the capital to the boundary.

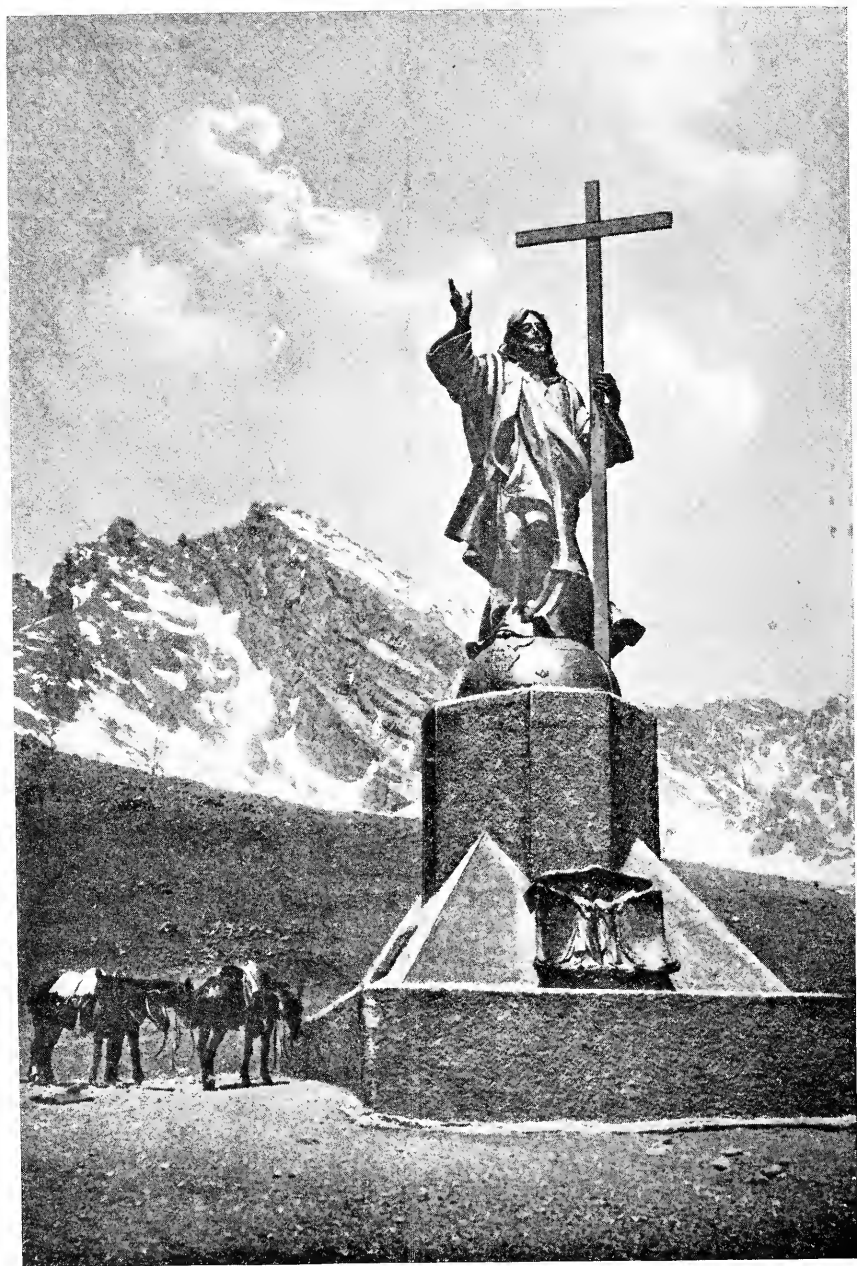
The actual programs of both surveys and construction will depend on the wishes of the several governments concerned, inasmuch as satisfactory cooperation on their part is indispensable, and, as stated in the report of the original reconnaissance, the purpose of the Inter-American Highway is the development not of minimum mileage, but rather of maximum service. This service is desirable as an immediate return, of course, but the fact should not be overlooked that the proposed highway may be considered as the backbone of a larger, more general extension of roads for development purposes, and may therefore properly be located to produce as great local and general benefits as possible without rigid adherence to the most direct or shortest possible routes between major points of control.

Plans have already been made for reopening a field office in Panama, and the Junta Central de Caminos, of which Ingeniero Tomás Guardia is head, has advised the United States Bureau of Public Roads that the quarters so generously provided by the Panamanian Government during the original reconnaissance work are again to be made available in the Palacio Nacional in Panama City. It is probable that the office will have been opened by the time this article appears.



A BUSINESS STREET OF BUENOS AIRES, ARGENTINA.

The completion of the Pan American Highway will bring into closer communication the capitals of America.



THE CHRIST OF THE ANDES.

Following the conclusion of peace and boundary treaties between Argentina and Chile, this monument of Christ the Redeemer was erected in 1904 in Uspallata Pass on the boundary between the two nations.

THE CHRIST OF THE ANDES

By CHARLES E. BABCOCK

Librarian of the Columbus Memorial Library, Pan American Union

IN the heart of the Andes, on the boundary line between the two southernmost Republics of America, stands the statue known as "The Christ of the Andes", the right hand raised as though pronouncing a benediction upon all the Western Hemisphere. For over thirty-one years that figure has been a cherished symbol of American peace and brotherhood, and March 13, the anniversary of its dedication, is annually celebrated by the dwindling number of devoted contributors to the original fund for casting the statue.

Perhaps no statue in the Western Hemisphere, or even in the world, has caused greater comment, been described more at length, or given rise to more erroneous statements, than this impressive monument. Other statues to the Savior have been erected, one on the highest point in the outskirts of Rio de Janeiro and another on the mountain "El Calvario" at Puerto Varas, Chile, while still a third is being planned for the Morro at Arica. But it is the Christ of the Andes that has been a live and ever-interesting topic and a mecca for the traveler since its dedication in 1904. Its beauty has been sung in verse; it has been painted and photographed; medals depicting it have been struck; copies of it have been used as ornaments and in jewelry; a small reproduction (about six feet high) has been placed in the Peace Palace at The Hague as a gift from the Universal Peace Association of Buenos Aires; but as yet no single article in English has given a complete story of its inception, creation, and unveiling.

At the turn of the century, Pope Leo XIII issued many encyclicals; among them was one, dated November 1, 1900, known as the *Tametsi*, which calls for the consecration of the entire world to Christ the Redeemer. Part of it reads as follows: "Venerable brethren . . . think it the chief part of your duty to engrave in the hearts of your people the true knowledge and, we might almost say, the image of Jesus Christ. . . . Remember the words He spoke: 'And I, if I be lifted up from the earth, will draw all men unto Me.'" (John xii:32).

During the same year Monsignor Marcolino del Carmel Benavente, Bishop of the Diocese of San Juan—comprising both the three Provinces of San Luis, San Juan, and Mendoza into which the former Province of Cuyo was divided, and the Territory of Neuquén—proposed in a pastoral letter the erection somewhere in the

mountainous regions of his see of a statue that would not only recall the consecration of the world to the Savior, but also bring home to men's minds that they, having been dedicated to the service of the Master, should adjust their political differences and arrive at that mutual understanding which is the very essence of an enduring peace.

While the good Bishop Benavente originated the idea of erecting the statue, much of the credit for carrying that idea out belongs to Señora Ángela de Oliveira César de Costa, president of the Christian Mothers' Association and founder, in 1907, of the Universal Peace Society, both of Buenos Aires. It was through her efforts that money was obtained for casting the statue after the model by Mateo Alonso, a young sculptor of great promise, and that it was finished by 1903 and placed temporarily in the Colegio Lacordaire, an institution controlled by the Dominican order to which the bishop belonged. The original intention was to exhibit the statue at the college until sufficient funds should be secured for its eventual erection near Puente del Inca, in the Argentine Andes.

Early in 1903 the series of peace pacts and boundary treaties between Argentina and Chile was concluded in Buenos Aires and the presence of the Chilean commission was the occasion for great celebration in the Argentine capital. Two of the series have received world wide attention. One was the treaty whereby both nations agreed "to submit to arbitration all questions of whatever nature which from whatever cause may arise between them, in so far as they do not affect the provisions of the constitution of the one or the other country". The other was a convention on naval armaments, the first to involve the renunciation of war vessels already ordered: "The Governments of Chile and Argentina desist from acquiring the vessels of war which they have in construction and from henceforth making new acquisitions. Both Governments agree, moreover, to reduce their respective fleets, for which object they will continue to exert themselves until they arrive at an understanding which shall establish a just balance [of strength] between the said fleets."

Señora de Costa felt that the conclusion of these treaties should be commemorated in tangible form, and it occurred to her that not only would the statue of Christ the Redeemer be most appropriate for the purpose, but also it would be assured a more suitable location. She therefore suggested to President Julio A. Roca of Argentina and members of the Chilean commission that the statue be placed somewhere on the common boundary line as a perpetual reminder of the peace so auspiciously established between the two countries. The suggestion was finally adopted, although it was not without difficulty that she was able to persuade those in authority.

The site finally chosen for it was the Uspallata Pass, 300 feet below the summit and 13,780 feet above sea level. It was from this point, between the giant peaks of Tupungato and Aconcagua, that soldiers of San Martín's victorious army first viewed the country they were on their way to aid in achieving that independence so ardently desired by all South America. Before the construction of the railway between Argentina and Chile (opened April 5, 1910, and made possible by boring the Transandine tunnel through the mountain) this pass was the regular route for travelers between the two countries; the road over it was known as the "*Camino de las Cuevas*" in Argentina, and as the "*Camino de los Andes*" in Chile. On the pass there are now a meteorological station, established by the Argentine Government, and a radio and weather station belonging to the Pan American Airways. About 300 feet from the border there is also a small stone hut, the Bermejo, where before the construction of the railroad the traveler forced to spend the night en route in this windy, cold, bleak, stony region could find shelter when he was unable to reach more comfortable lodgings at Puente del Inca, 1,650 feet below on the Argentine side. Those who visit the site today usually do so either from the nearest railway station of Las Cuevas, approximately two miles away, or from Puente del Inca, where mineral baths and winter sports attract many besides those on a pilgrimage to the statue. Pope Pius X wrote to Señora de Costa, in a letter dated June 7, 1908: "We grant seven years' indulgence to those devout pilgrims who visit the site where the image of Jesus Christ the Redeemer has been erected."

The moving of the statue to the site chosen was difficult. It had to be shipped by rail over 750 miles from Buenos Aires to Mendoza, and from there hauled 115 miles over the mountains by mules. Señor Molina Civit, an engineer attached to the Roads and Bridges Inspection Service of the Argentine Ministry of Public Works was assigned to the task. After consulting with the sculptor and examining the statue as it stood in the Colegio Lacordaire, he decided to construct for it a cement base of the same shape as the original designed by Señor Alonso, but larger and reinforced with steel. As a final finish, a thin mixture of cement and sand was used as a coating to give the effect of a large boulder. The base was finished on February 15, 1904. Details of the erection of the statue were entrusted to the sculptor, who completed the work early in March. The sum of 40,000 pesos was contributed by the Government of Argentina toward meeting the costs of transportation and erection.

The statue is a gigantic figure of Christ 26 feet high, the right hand raised, the left clasping a cross which extends 5 feet above the head. The figure is facing the northwest, as though sighting the boundary

line between Argentina and Chile; it stands upon a granite hemisphere 5 feet high and weighing 14 tons, upon whose surface the continents are set in bronze. Chile and Argentina appear just below the right foot of the figure. The hemisphere rests in turn on the 22-foot reinforced concrete base. Through the center of the whole monument is a steel support extending to the head of the statue. Photographs available indicate that some changes were made in the statue when it was set in its final location. When on exhibition in Buenos Aires, the figure had a nimbus and the cross was evidently of wood. When erected the nimbus was omitted and a different cross, also evidently of wood, was installed. At a later date this was replaced by one of metal which was damaged a few years afterward during a terrific cyclone. A close examination of the cross as it appears at present shows where it was repaired by welding.

The dedication of the statue was planned as the climax to a long series of official and private functions held in both countries in connection with the conclusion of a definitive peace between the peoples of the two nations. Both countries ordered medals struck to commemorate the ceremonies, which were set for March 13, 1904. At a preliminary ceremony held in Buenos Aires on March 5, Señora de Costa was presented with one of the Argentine medals in the Bishop's Palace.

A few days later a large group of government officials, soldiers, and civilians from both countries gathered in Puente del Inca to witness the ceremony. On the morning of the 13th the hotel there had the appearance of an encampment from the number of tents necessary to accommodate the throng.

At the appointed hour over 3,000 persons gathered at the foot of the statue, where a field altar had been erected. The special committees representing Argentina and Chile arrived early at the statue, and the ceremonies began with salutes fired by the soldiers of both nations standing in military formation 500 feet apart, the Chileans on Argentine soil, the Argentines on Chilean. The roar of the salutes vibrated from peak to peak and echoed and re-echoed until it seemed as though the mountains themselves would be rent asunder. Then followed the playing of the national anthems by bands from the two countries and long *vivas*, first for the two Republics and then for Presidents Riesco of Chile and Roca of Argentina. Next a mass was sung by Monsignor Mariano Antonio Espinosa, Archbishop of Buenos Aires, assisted by Chilean prelates. Speeches appropriate to the occasion were delivered by Dr. Pablo Cabrera, an Argentine priest and scholar; Dr. Raimundo Silva Cruz, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Chile; Dr. José A. Terry, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Argentina; and Monsignor Ramón Ángel Jara, Bishop of San Carlos de Ancud, Chile.

In the official delegation from Chile there were, in addition to those already mentioned, the Minister of the Interior; the governors of the Provinces of Santiago, Valparaíso, and Aconcagua; the mayor of Santiago; and many distinguished private citizens. That from Argentina included also the Minister of Agriculture, members of the diplomatic corps, military and naval officials; the president and vice president of the *Círculos de Obreros* (working men's clubs); Bishop Benavente; Mateo Alonso; and government and provincial officials.

When the monument was erected, two plaques were affixed to the base, one on the north side, the other on the west. Both were exhibited in Gath & Chaves' department store in Buenos Aires for several weeks before being shipped to the Andes. That on the west side was the official inscription of the Argentine Government, and was cast in the War Department arsenal in Buenos Aires, according to a design by Señor Alonso. It is in the form of an open book, about three feet high, on which appear two women, symbolic of the two nations, standing arm in arm, each with the other arm outstretched as though to protect the page behind her. Portraits of Señora de Costa and Señora de Riesco, wife of the President of Chile, were used as models for the two figures. Across the top is the legend: *Ypse est pax nostra qui fecit utraque unum* (He is our peace who hath made us one). On the pages of the book are the dates of significant treaties between the two countries. The list of dates and the documents to which they refer are:

- August 30, 1855. Treaty of peace, friendship, commerce and navigation between Argentina and Chile
- July 23, 1881. Boundary treaty between Argentina and Chile
- August 20, 1888. Convention between Argentina and Chile providing for the execution of the project provided in the treaty of July 23, 1888
- May 12, 1893. Additional protocol to the treaty of July 23, 1881.
- April 17, 1896. Agreement to facilitate the survey of the boundary line
- May 28, 1902. Four peace agreements:
 1. Convention declaring the international policy of Argentina and Chile
 2. Treaty of general arbitration.
 3. Agreement for the limitation of naval armament.
 4. Arrangement for having the boundary line between the two countries, when determined by the arbitrator, marked by engineers appointed by him.

[The declaration of international policy was in the preamble of the arbitration convention and was made an integral part of the agreement.]
- July 10, 1902. Agreement explaining articles 1 and 2 of the agreement for the reduction of naval armament of May 28, 1902.

January 9, 1903. Convention fixing the boundary markers of the Atacama region.

Convention to make effective the agreement for the limitation of naval armament of May 28, 1902.

The plaque on the north side of the base was presented by the Círculos de Obreros of Buenos Aires and reads as follows:

Los Círculos de Obreros
de la República Argentina

A CRISTO REDENTOR

Por la Paz Definitiva
Entre Argentinos y Chilenos

1902-1904

Presidentes

JULIO A. ROCA—GERMÁN RIESCO

Ministros

JOSÉ A. TERRY—JOSÉ F. VERGARA DONOSO
JOAQUÍN GONZÁLEZ—CARLOS CONCHA

Since 1905 three other plaques have been added, two on the west side—one by the Rotary International and the other with names and dates only—and the third on the north side, commemorating the first automobile caravan to make the trip over the pass.

In addition to the plaques now on the base, two others were originally planned but never affixed. One, bearing the names of Señora de Costa and the Bishops of Argentina and Chile, was not accepted when the statue was erected. The other is reported to have been cast and sent by the citizens of Córdoba but failed to reach the authorities in charge of the construction of the base. This plaque contained the inscription, in Spanish, "Render unto Caesar the things that are Caesar's."

Nearly every one who has discussed the Christ of the Andes, in speeches or in magazines, newspapers, or books, has quoted as an inscription on the monument the noble sentence: "Sooner shall these mountains crumble into dust than Argentines and Chileans break the peace sworn at the feet of Christ the Redeemer."

Not the slightest evidence, however, can be obtained to indicate that such a sentiment ever was on the monument, either as an independent inscription or as part of a plaque. The sentence is contained in the address delivered by the Bishop of San Carlos de Ancud at the unveiling of the monument. The speech was printed

in full in *El Mercurio* of Santiago, Chile, on March 14, 1904. A translation of the complete paragraph in which the statement occurred is as follows:

And when future generations, carried in the arms of steam, mount to this spot through these defiles, they will find no testament such as that of the heroic Spartans at Thermopylae, written with their blood on the bare stones: "Here we gave up our lives to defend our country's laws." / Rather will they come to this summit and in the bronze of this glorious monument they will see graven in letters of fire a sublime inscription: Sooner shall these mountains crumble into dust than Argentines and Chileans break the peace sworn at the feet of Christ the Redeemer.

This most-quoted "inscription", then, was only a felicitous bit of oratory on the part of the Chilean bishop. Apparently whoever first commented on the address had the mistaken idea that Bishop Jara, in referring to the "sublime inscription" engraved on the "bronze of this glorious monument" was speaking literally instead of figuratively. The error has had the happy result, however, of giving world-wide currency to a noble sentiment which might otherwise have perished in the archives where accounts of such events are stored and forgotten.



SOCIAL LABOR LEGISLATION IN BRAZIL ¹

By Dr. JORGE STREET

Chief, Labor Department of the State of São Paulo, Brazil

THERE will be no lasting peace in this world unless it is based on greater social justice. Such was the solemn declaration of all civilized nations, including Brazil, when after the tremendous catastrophe of the World War, they anxiously sought at Versailles, in one of the most famous international gatherings of all times, the path to material and spiritual peace.

The tragic dangers to which all, without class distinction, were exposed for so long had awakened men's consciences. A realization of the existing social injustice took shape and the definite and urgent need of greater protection for the worker was felt by everyone.

The nations of the world recognized the existence of labor conditions which implied injustice, misery and privation for a large number of people and which were producing a general unrest and dissatisfaction dangerous to the peace and harmony of the world, and solemnly declared the urgent necessity of improving such conditions. The same nations also subscribed to the statement that the failure of any one of them to adopt a really humanitarian labor system would keep the efforts of any others to improve the conditions of their own workers from being crowned with any measure of success.

Recognizing the fundamental importance, from both the national and the international points of view, of the physical, moral and intellectual well-being of the wage-earner, the nations also declared the especially urgent need of legislation based on the following principles: labor should not be considered as a commodity or an article of commerce; the right of the laboring classes to organize themselves into unions should be recognized in all cases not contrary to existing laws; this right of organization should be granted equally to employer and employee; employees should be paid sufficient wages to enable them to maintain a decent standard of living in accordance with local conditions; the 8-hour working-day or the 48-hour week should be adopted; the worker should be given a weekly day of rest of at least 24 hours, which should, whenever possible, be Sunday; child labor should be abolished and women workers protected against exhausting labor and conditions which might endanger their health; protection against accidents and industrial diseases should be provided by law;

¹ Condensed from an address delivered before the Instituto de Engenharia of São Paulo, and quoted in *Boletim do Instituto de Engenharia*, São Paulo, October 1934, No. 107, v. XX, pp. 225-234.

legislation should also provide for labor accident compensation, the payment of old-age pensions, and equal wages for equal labor without distinction of sex; foreign laborers should be granted equitable economic treatment; and finally the enforcement of all such legislation should be supervised by duly empowered government officials.

In spite of the tremendous difficulties, based in large part on the fear of economic competition, these principles have been embodied in the legislation of most countries, including Brazil.²

To deny the existence of the social question in Brazil would be a mistake, although it is true that in this country the problems have never been as serious as in many others. Abuses and injustices there have been concerned with age of employment, hours of work, and wages, but the working masses have never lived in the tragic circumstances found in other countries. The writer speaks from experience, since for many years he managed factories where thousands of people were employed. What he saw then aroused his conscience and he tried thereafter to improve conditions as much as possible. He still prides himself on the title "poet of industry" given to him by some of his fellow employers. But he was not the only one to feel the need of reform and in São Paulo, in Rio de Janeiro, in Rio Grande do Sul, many others were also doing their best to improve the lot of the worker. It must be acknowledged, however, that they were the exception rather than the rule as far as the country as a whole was concerned, and the general problems of the worker remained for many years without adequate solution.

The revolutionary movement which swept Brazil in 1930 brought to the fore in national politics a group of men who had studied the existing conditions of labor and promised to improve them. This they have done, fulfilling the obligations of honor assumed at Versailles by the Brazilian delegates.

Before 1930 scarcely anything had been done in this field in Brazil. It is true that there was a law providing for compensation to workers injured during working hours³ and another providing for the establishment of *caixas* or pension funds for retired railroad employees.⁴ The latter, prepared and introduced into the Federal Congress by Eloy Chaves, then deputy from the State of São Paulo, served as a basis for the preliminary studies for recent legislation. There was also a law providing for yearly paid vacations for industrial workers.⁵ This law, whose enactment surprised the workers as much as the employers, has no equal elsewhere in the world, but unfortunately the employer has been allowed to distribute the legal

² See Dunlop, C. J., *Legislação Brasileira do Trabalho*, 2nd. ed., Rio de Janeiro, 1934.

³ Decree No. 3724, January 15, 1919.

⁴ Decree No. 17941, October 11, 1927.

⁵ Decree No. 4982, December 24, 1925.

vacation period of 15 days throughout the year, thus considerably weakening the good intention of the law. Furthermore, its provisions are somewhat confused and although at present they are being enforced, some persons, including the author, feel that the law weighs too heavily upon industry in the country.

Previous Governments also attempted to promote the organization of labor, the establishment of cooperative societies, and a workers' housing program.

When the Provisional Government, under the leadership of Dr. Getulio Vargas, reorganized the Ministry of Labor, Industry and Commerce, the author was invited to become chief of the Labor Section, which he did at the end of March 1931. At that time Federal decree number 19770, promulgated on March 19, 1931, and regulating the unionization, or syndicalization as we say in Brazil, of both employers and employees, was already being carried out. It was a new law and, although quite advanced in scope for Brazil, had been generally well received. It also recognized the need for a coordinating entity. This entity could only be the Government, since it had to have power of intervention and even of deciding certain points in disputes between employers and employees.

The fundamental idea of this legislation was, therefore, to provide legal and economic cooperation between employers and employees. For that purpose it was necessary to create other bodies to act as agencies of conciliation or arbitration, and thus establish a balance between divergent and often contradictory interests. A decree was therefore promulgated by the Provisional Government creating arbitration and conciliation commissions and defining their duties.⁶ Up to the present, these bodies have been organized only in a few places, although it must be recognized that they have been very successful in other countries, particularly in Italy and Germany.

The union is essentially an institution for defending rights, but it must also regulate duties. Created by law in Brazil as an organ of consultation and cooperation with the Government, it must render equitable and fair judgment in order to attain the ideal.

Unfortunately, this function has not always been understood and many unions have engaged in struggle and resistance, frequently unreasonably. Only the introduction of still another factor, the moral and psychological factor of good will and good faith, can cure these evils.

Employers in both large and small concerns need first of all to be convinced that the right to organize has been definitely won by employees, and that it is useless to protest. So far as the author knows, there is no case anywhere on record where such a right has been withdrawn after it has once been granted.

⁶ Decree No. 21396, May 12, 1932.

Some industrialists may feel it advisable or even necessary to curtail or limit the development of these unions, which have not yet won the approval of many in our country. But since the right to organize has been granted by Brazilian law both to employers and to employees, the author does not believe such a course possible.

Naturally, the Brazilian worker has today aspirations which, when not given the proper consideration by his employer, lead him to demand justice by force. This is excusable, and one must not confuse the real worker with those outsiders who try to take advantage of the workers to promote their own interests.

In my opinion unions, instead of being limited in size and organization, should be promoted by every possible means, since common sense and the desire for order would normally predominate and natural leaders be put in charge of union affairs. In this manner the chief cause of unrest would disappear, and at the same time it would be easier for employers to treat or reach an agreement with their workers.

Good faith and good will are essential elements in conciliation, without which no permanent peace or cooperation is to be obtained. We all know the objections raised by those who allege that any group organization by workers transforms them into tyrants and agitators whose demands must be opposed. There is, of course, some truth in that, but in Brazil at the present time we are confronted by the new and inescapable fact that there is a law granting to the working man certain rights and privileges which he is determined to maintain and to exercise.

The writer is one of those who believe in a great future for Brazil. We need to give rein to those qualities of courage and persistence we have so well exemplified since the beginning of our life as an independent nation. Both employers and employees must exercise those qualities. One of the ideas which some unions seem to cherish is that any act of the management dealing with one of their members is due to the fact that he belongs to a union and for that reason must be punished. As a consequence protests and disorder arise and sometimes lead to unnecessary, foolish, and illegal conflict, often giving rise to strikes and lockouts which benefit neither side.

The present author has never feared the peaceful strike and once, in fact, openly defended in the press the right of the worker to strike as his only means of obtaining a reasonable increase in wages or any other just improvement of his condition. At that time the worker in Brazil was not provided with means to enforce his rights. Today the working classes are well organized throughout the country, possess adequate powers of self protection and have the active support of the Government, which has granted them the privilege of dealing directly with it. Therefore, repeated and more or less disorderly strikes, for

little or no cause, are entirely uncalled for today in this country except in special cases where there has been evident injustice.

Let us see what other specific legislation has been enacted by the Government of Brazil since 1930 for the protection of the workers and the improvement of their standard of living.

Dr. Lindolfo Collor, immediately after he became Minister of Labor, Industry and Commerce in 1930, organized under his personal chairmanship a large commission to study labor conditions all over the country and to prepare bills which would improve them. Among the members of this commission were outstanding representatives of Brazilian industry and commerce, of the workers, of the National Bar Association and of the Ministry of Labor, Industry and Commerce. Representatives of agriculture were purposely excluded, since it was planned to have the problems of the rural worker studied by a special commission.

A great and longstanding aspiration of workers everywhere—known as the three eights, that is, the division of the day into equal 8 hour parts for labor, recreation and sleep—was immediately embodied in a decree which adopted as standard the 8-hour working day or the 48-hour week.⁷ This law wisely permits the duration of a day's labor to be increased to 10 hours, when necessary for efficiency and if both parties agree to it. In such cases certain additional wages must be paid to the worker. The interpretation of this provision has given rise to questions and disputes which, however, are being settled in a spirit of mutual sympathy and comprehension of the interests and problems of both parties.

In the opinion of the writer, what interests the wage-earner the most is how much he earns a month. At least this is so in most civilized countries, where the worker has to pay his bills for house-rent, food, clothing, medicine, school, etc., on a monthly basis. Whether his wages are figured by the hour, week, month or job is of little importance to him. He is interested in knowing how much he is getting per month so as to estimate whether he will have enough money to pay all his monthly bills.

Therefore, when international treaties and agreements declare that the worker must be paid sufficient wages to enable him to live decently, in accordance with the local standard of living, it is quite evident that the intention is not to regulate the wage rates per hour, day, etc., but rather to have the total wages suffice for the payment of the worker's obligations. The first solution of this problem demanded long hours from the worker. But fortunately that system, which resulted in excessive fatigue for the worker, has now been discarded almost everywhere and the 8-hour day adopted with sufficient wages to enable the worker to live decently.

⁷ Decree No. 21363, May 4, 1932.

It is true that when wages are paid on the hour, day, or job basis, the price of production is increased. But such an increase is, nevertheless, behind the spirit, even if not the letter, of Brazilian law; according to the latter the industrialist is allowed the right, in special cases, to enter into wage agreements with his workers. In such cases, however, wages paid to the worker for his labor, which is limited in all cases to a certain number of hours, must be sufficient to enable him to maintain the desired standard of living. This is, at any rate, the interpretation which the writer has been adopting as Director of the Labor Department of the State of São Paulo.

Another question studied by the commission was that of adequate rest for the worker. The basic principle of a reasonable period of work, either daily or weekly, followed by one day or 24 hours of rest, was followed in the legislation promulgated by Salgado Filho, Minister of Labor, who, however, allowed changes and variations to be introduced in accordance with the peculiar circumstances of each industry, as suggested by its respective unions. Such legislation has already been adopted in regard to banks, hotels, barber shops, theaters, recreation places, packing plants, and many others.

Other laws now in force regulate conditions of labor for women⁸ and children⁹ in industrial and commercial establishment and are worthy of comment because of their humanitarian character. All these laws endeavor in the first place to promote the moral and physical welfare of the race.

The modern social legislation of all civilized nations has been inspired in the main by the principles adopted at the International Labor Conference of Washington in 1919. The general conclusions of that Conference were also accepted by Brazil. One of those conclusions advocates equal payment for equal labor without distinction of sex. This is already law in Brazil. Legislation promulgated by the present Government further provides that women may not work in industrial or commercial establishments after 10 p. m., except in special cases. A prospective mother is not allowed to work in an industrial or commercial establishment for the four weeks before and after the birth of her child; such periods may be increased two more weeks by the advice of a competent doctor. The positions of such women workers are kept open for them and during their absence from work they are paid half their usual wages. Women who nurse their babies have the right to two daily rest periods of half an hour each, during the first six months after the child is born.

The law provides that any establishment having 30 or more women workers over 16 years of age must provide an adequate place where

⁸ Decree No. 21417-A, May 17, 1932.

⁹ Decree No. 22042, November 3, 1932.

small children may be left under proper supervision while their mothers are at work.

In the law relative to minors, there was the desire to protect the race as well as the individual child. In the discussion which took place over this bill, Judge Mello Mattos was one of the foremost defenders of the new trends. In highly industrialized countries where labor is plentiful, the tendency has been to raise the age for admission of minors to factories and commercial establishments.

In Brazil, however, conditions are different and the members of the commission studying this question proposed various age limits, some even suggesting 15 as the minimum age for the admission of minors in industrial and commercial establishments. The writer suggested 13, because it harmonized the interests of the race with the economic necessities of the country and the greatest efficiency of industry. But after considerable study it was finally decided to adopt 14 as the minimum age, taking into consideration, among other things, the necessity of having all workers in the same division of a factory work the same number of hours for greater efficiency, and the fact that, particularly in certain industries, it might be necessary to increase the work day to 10 hours, which, of course, made it advisable to exclude minors under 14 years of age. This minimum age (14) was also adopted in the Constitution of 1934.

The number of working hours for minors between 14 and 18 years of age is the same as for adults. But the employed minors are to be under the constant supervision of competent officials (juvenile court judges and others) who, when the minor's physical condition or other circumstances require shorter working hours, may intervene to secure the necessary changes. The law also provides that such employed minors must be given adequate opportunity to attend school.

There is yet another subject which merits our attention: that of compensation for disabled workers, pensions for the aged, and life insurance for all. Workers quickly attain maximum wages and since for long years after that they have very little probability of increasing their income, they cannot, as a rule, provide unaided for old age or years of invalidism. It is therefore necessary for the State to intervene to protect the worker. Ours has done so. We have already mentioned the Eloy Chaves Law, which was the first to be enacted in this field in Brazil. That original law, providing for the establishment of retirement and pension funds (*caixas de aposentadorias e pensões*), was later enlarged in scope and improved by successive decrees thanks to the special interest taken by Doctors Lindolfo Collor and Salgado Filho.¹⁰ The law now covers the employees of

¹⁰ Decree No. 20465, October 1, 1931.

nearly all the public utility corporations such as transportation, power, light, telephones, telegraphs, harbors, water, sewers and many others.

The system adopted was that of consolidation of funds which, in spite of certain defects, was found to be that best adapted to conditions prevailing in Brazil. The advantage of a great number of subscribers to individual funds was not to be had, so the law allows several small funds to be consolidated when necessary. Only the future will show what changes and improvements should be made, since at the present time our lack of detailed vital statistics does not enable us to do any better.

The fact that all funds or *caixas* are subject to inspection by the National Labor Council (*Conselho Nacional do Trabalho*) is a guarantee of the stability of these institutions.

There are many other matters which the Ministry of Labor, Industry and Commerce has investigated, but it would be impossible to mention them all here. It may suffice to say that about 120 decrees have been promulgated concerning widely varied aspects of labor.

The criticism has been advanced that these laws are premature and not yet necessary in Brazil, where neither employer nor employee is yet prepared for such advanced legislation. The writer does not agree, although he is ready to admit that the laws contain many provisions which, having been taken from the legislation of more advanced countries, may not exactly fit our present conditions. But it is seldom possible to choose the most appropriate hour for putting into effect ideas of the type under discussion. The Revolution of 1930 felt the tremendous unrest of the masses and included their aspirations in its program and later on, in its hour of victory, enacted them into laws. It might have been possible to wait a little longer before legislating on these matters. But ideas by themselves do not prepare the populace for their practical application; it is necessary to embody them into law in order to make the average man realize their applicability and even necessity.

The difficulties noted are, in general, due to eagerness to legislate at once on all matters. There is also an evident lack of unity, harmony and logical sequence among these laws, and their provisions are therefore often difficult to interpret. There are even certain laws with contradictory provisions and many others are not at all clear. From this arise the difficulties of those who are entrusted by the law with their enforcement. The only remedy in such cases is tact and patience.

As yet we do not possess any detailed legislation specifying the functions of those officials who are to supervise the execution of the

new labor laws. Frequently therefore they are compelled to consult foreign legislation in order to find the information and guidance necessary. Unfortunately, in most of the foreign legislation the general tendency is to defend the employee, still considered the weaker party, and so it is to him that the law offers its protection.

We have referred to laws far in advance of our national conditions. For example, we have a law providing that after six days of work the employee must have 24 hours of rest with pay. We do not know whether there is any similar law in any foreign country; but in Brazil this seems excessive. Since there are 52 weeks in the year and there are already 15 days of legal vacation for each worker, the employer has to pay 67 days, i. e., nearly 20 percent of the total, to all employees when they do not do a stroke of work for him.

To correct the defects it will be enough for the Federal Congress to study all these laws anew, weed out the mistakes and contradictions, and codify them into a logical and comprehensible whole. We think that this is the task now before the present Government and we understand that to tackle it is the intention of our leaders.



COSTA RICA, JEWEL OF CENTRAL AMERICA

PART I

By MANUEL GONZÁLEZ ZELEDÓN

Minister Resident of Costa Rica in the United States

IN the early part of September in the year 1502, the Great Navigator, Christopher Columbus, strong in his determination to find the "pass" to the Indies he believed must exist, was completing his fourth and last voyage to the New World which he had discovered only 10 years before.

Several days later, on the 18th of the month, he dropped anchor in a small bay, alongside a tiny islet, facing a coast which from that moment captivated his attention by the glorious beauty of its panorama. Cariari was the indigenous name of this pleasant harborage. The Admiral, ill and worn from his troublesome journey, remained on his ship but sent his brother Bartolomé to explore the coast whereon he descried some human beings. While Bartolomé was executing his important commission, Columbus entertained himself by surveying the rugged line of the high mountains whose summits appeared to be no more than fifty miles inland. This cordillera formed a striking background for an enchanting valley dotted here and there with groves of palms and other trees and furrowed by fresh currents of water. Flocks of birds of brilliant hues ranging from the snowy white of the herons to the flaming red and vivid green of the macaws might have been seen weaving in and out of the emerald depths of the forest and fluttering against the turquoise background of the sky in a tumultuous riot of color, resembling nothing so much as the confused spectrum of a painter's palette.

When Bartolomé returned from the coast, accompanied by a group of Indians of both sexes, who had voluntarily consented to visit the vessel of the Admiral, the astonishment of Columbus was boundless. He found his lithe copper-colored visitors very handsome, peaceful, and respectful. The men were of vigorous muscular physique and wore only a loin cloth; whereas the women, delicately curved and graceful, were dressed in short ruffled skirts of similar cloth. In their hair they had beautiful feathers and about their throats hung necklaces formed of the teeth of wild animals interspersed with small colored stones and amulets of gold representing eagles, frogs, lizards, and rattles. Those who appeared to be of higher rank ostentatiously displayed on their breasts huge disks of gold, mysteriously wrought

with strange signs and figures. For arms they carried short lances of very hard wood, bows, arrows, and stone maces.

The Admiral presented his guests with fragments of multicolored fabrics and glittering trifles of glass and copper. Then, without permitting any of his followers to accept a single one of their jewels in return, he had them escorted back to the shore. On the following day, the Spaniards found discarded upon the beach and neatly piled in a willow basket every one of their gifts, in mute demonstration that,



LA UVITA ISLAND.

It was off this island that Columbus anchored on September 18, 1502, when he discovered Costa Rica

notwithstanding their pleasant reception, the haughty aborigines had considered the refusal of the Spaniards to accept reciprocal gifts an affront to their dignity. At the suggestion of Bartolomé, the Indians returned once more to the ship, and this time a proper solution of the delicate situation was found in an exchange of gifts. Each one returned to his hut with a necklace of glass beads, a cowbell of copper, a little mirror of wavy glass, or perhaps a few yards of brilliantly colored cloth, a rusty old knife, or a dented tin spoon.

The enthusiasm of the Admiral over the results he obtained in the bartering, enhanced by the assurance given by the Indians to their new friends, through gestures, that the neighboring mountains were filled with gold and the nearby rivers abounded with rich sands intermingled with the precious metal, caused him to name that region "Costa Rica", which in Spanish means *Rich Coast*.

The highest mountain which Columbus saw at that time must have been the volcano Turrialba, which rises to a height of 10,913 feet above sea-level. The crests that his line of vision followed to the south were those of the majestic Sierra of Talamanca, containing the highest peaks of the country—Chirripó, having an altitude of 12,447 feet, and Buenavista, with a height of 11,375 feet. The immense valley



A VIEW ON THE OUTSKIRTS OF SAN JOSÉ.

that Columbus viewed with such delight is today an interminable expanse of verdant banana and cacao plantations.

The little islet facing the coast appeared to Columbus a beautifully kept garden; he therefore gave it the prettily symbolic name of "El Verjel". Today it is called "La Uvita" (the little grape). The indigenous name of Cariari was changed, with the passing of time, to Puerto Limón.

The name of Costa Rica is indeed fitting, for in the Sierra of Tilarán, on the eastern border of the Gulf of Nicoya, there can be found the Monte del Aguacate and Montes de Oro mines, which bear the name of the mountains wherein they are located, and the Abangarez Gold Fields, which have for a long time produced enormous



THE MINISTRY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS, SAN JOSÉ.

This building, the gift of Andrew Carnegie, was erected to house the Central American Court of Justice.

amounts of this highly coveted metal. The country is very narrow, measuring as it does only 174 miles from east to west in the widest part and 74 miles in the narrowest.

It has well been called a "girdle of gold", strewn, moreover, with pearls and rubies. For what more precious jewels could one find than the glorious gems fished from the depths of the Gulf of Nicoya; what more fiery gleaming rubies than the burning craters of La Vieja, Miravalles, and Tenorio, in the Guanacaste Range, or those of Poás, Barba, Irazú, and Turrialba in the central chain?

The backbone of the American continent, formed by the range of mountains running from Behring Strait in the north to the Strait of Magellan in the south, must necessarily narrow down to pass through Costa Rica, thus creating a mountainous paradise that easily justifies the appellation "Switzerland of Central America." In addition to the picturesqueness that distinguishes it, the little country enjoys many practical advantages. It has the beneficial effects of a varied climate, running the gamut from the heat along both the Atlantic and Pacific coasts, through the mild and cool temperatures of the central plateau, to the brisk cold on the mountain heights. In its fertile soil plants and trees of innumerable varieties, from the royal palms bathed in the spumy waves of both oceans to the pines rocked by the breezes on the mountain tops, are easily cultivated and thrive readily. Here are found trees producing strong woods for construction, lovely woods of many colors for marquetry work, tan-bark,



CATARACTS OF THE CARACHO AND POÁS RIVERS.

Waterfalls are only one of the many natural beauties of Costa Rica which have special interest and charm for the traveler.

woods heavy as iron and hard as flint which dull an axe of the most finely tempered steel, woods feather-light, like the balsa which has also a tenacious power of resistance and is much used and highly valued in the construction of airplanes, life preservers, and refrigerators. Here, too, thrive many kinds of medicinal plants of valuable therapeutic powers; reeds and canes, vines and fibres of many uses; native trees and plants whose savory and luscious fruits vie with those produced by many imported from all parts of the world; and lastly, the ornamental plants among which we find hundreds of different ferns and orchids which nature has lavished so astoundingly on this tropical land, plants and flowers that more than rival in beauty, color, size, shape, and aroma the immense variety of foreign plants so easily acclimatized in this prolific soil.

The fauna, for the same reasons, is marvellously varied, especially the birds. A celebrated American ornithologist, who was collecting specimens for the Smithsonian Institution, once said: "Costa Rica is an earthly paradise for birds. Besides the innumerable species native

to this land, many from North and South America come here to spend the winter and avoid the cruel months of snow and cold."

The mineral kingdom boasts, in addition to gold, numerous veins and deposits of silver, copper, iron, manganese and other valuable minerals awaiting the miner's pick. Near Talamanca and Tilarán, there exist indications of petroleum deposits.

The principal sources of wealth for this diminutive republic lie in the exploitation of its forest riches, the breeding of fine cattle on the fertile prairies of Guanacaste and the plains of the wide Santa Clara Valley, the cultivation of coffee, Costa Rica's main agricultural product, the raising of grains and sugarcane on the central plateau, and the production of bananas, cacao and tobacco in the Atlantic section. Export products in the order of their importance are: Coffee, bananas, cacao, woods, gold, and hides; there are also many others of lesser importance.

The Spanish conquistadors who came in the wake of the Great Admiral did not find handfuls of gold in the sands of the rivers or in the mountain fissures as they had expected; nor did they see heaps of pearls on the beaches of the Gulf of Nicoya; and, since they had already despoiled the few Indians of their bejewelled golden necklaces and amulets, they disappointedly attempted in only a luke-warm fashion to colonize, develop, and improve what to them seemed more "Costa Pobre" (poor coast) than "Costa Rica" (rich coast). They therefore turned their prows toward other lands, where greater and more certain booty could be theirs for the taking: Mexico, Colombia, Venezuela, and Peru. Only a few chose this haven for their home and managed to thrive, though modestly.

In this manner the gradually declining colony passed three centuries in a primitive and quiet existence, allowing the mildness of the climate, the fertility of the soil, and the favor of Divine Providence to sap their energy and vitiate their ambition. One of the early governors, Don Tomás de Acosta, who was a man of vigorous spirit, firm character, and great dignity, sadly lamented this tragedy in a report to his sovereign in 1797, dwelling upon the exceeding poverty, almost penury, the complete ignorance, and the great demoralization in which he found his people. Striving to drag them from their inertia, he severely chastised the lethargy of his flock and forced them to earn their bread by the sweat of their brows. The importation of the first coffee trees, which in a little less than 70 years were to become the principal source of wealth in Costa Rica, was due to the interest of this ambitious governor and the zeal of a Franciscan monk.

The noble and loyal city of Cartago, which was the capital in those days, and most of the other important cities and villages were situated on the central plateau. Though they lacked good means of communication with the Pacific coast, it was the only one open at that time to



Courtesy of the Journal of the American Museum.

RELICS OF A BRILLIANT PAST.

The aborigines left valuable gold trinkets of exquisite workmanship. The National Museum in San José has an excellent collection of native relics.

the incipient commerce of the country; only by difficult and dangerous footpaths were city-dwellers able to gain sight of the Caribbean Sea; and the route to Panama was equally arduous and fraught with danger because of the many large rivers and brimming torrents that could be crossed only by swimming or wading. Because of these reasons and the many barriers imposed on colonial trade by the Spanish Crown, commerce was of necessity exceedingly limited.

This was the state of affairs until the year 1821 when, through a set of propitious circumstances brought about by the victories of Bolívar and San Martín in the south, the revolutionaries in Mexico, the movements of Napoleon on the Peninsula, and the existence of the great republic of the United States, the Captain Generalcy of Guatemala, of which Costa Rica formed a part, also declared its independence, sustaining the loss of not a single drop of blood and no greater expense than a few dollars spent for illuminations, fireworks, music, and Te Deums in celebration of the event. After considerable

vacillation and attempts to unite with larger and more powerful nations, the Costa Ricans resolved eventually to govern themselves and formed a small but independent and highly respected republic.

With the opening of the country to world commerce, and with the immigration of new elements that infused greater energy, activity, and progress into the nation, the republic took a new course. Cultivation was intensified, gold mines were exploited, and many schools were opened. The whole population undertook, with admirable determination, the building of good roads, especially to the port of Puntarenas, on the Pacific coast. This work demanded immediate attention, since it was necessary for the export of the surplus coffee crops,



THE CRATER OF POÁS.

which now greatly exceeded local consumption. Public funds were very scarce and, notwithstanding many sacrifices, barely sufficed for the construction of a preliminary dirt road about 70 miles long and for the erection of a few indispensable bridges. Only one was lacking to open this much-desired road to the public, but the coffers of the treasury were empty. What was to be done? It was then that the women of Costa Rica demonstrated their patriotism, determination, and generosity to an extent never until that day believed possible. The leaders of society formed a patriotic association to overcome the difficulty; they deprived themselves of luxuries, and, putting their shoulders to the wheel in many other ways, managed at last to gather together the sum needed. At once the impassable river was subdued

by a beautiful strong stone bridge spanning it from shore to shore; it is still known by the charming name "El Puente de las Damas" (The Ladies' Bridge). After more than 70 years of existence, this bridge is still being freely used. During those many years millions of bags of the excellent coffee which has brought Costa Rica world-wide fame have passed over its arch on muleback or in native ox carts on their way to foreign markets; across it have entered many products from all the nations of the earth.

The miracle of this unexpected awakening of the Costa Rican people to a new era of struggle, work, and progress was due chiefly to their own efforts, but it is nevertheless only fair to recognize the part taken by a sizable group of foreigners who brought with them knowledge, initiative, capital, and spirited energy. Here, in their adopted land, they found a new home and a sincere affection which they more than repaid with intelligent cooperation in labors for the common good.

Costa Rica will always remember with heart-felt gratitude the names of her benefactors and adopted sons. To name only two of the outstanding, we cite, among the North Americans, Minor Cooper Keith and his nephew, the estimable John Meiggs Keith, who took outstanding parts in many of the principal activities of Costa Rica.

Minor C. Keith, "Masta Kee", as he was affectionately called by the workers on the Atlantic coast, was a marvelous man. He arrived in Costa Rica in 1871 to construct the first railway line on the Atlantic side, which had been contracted for by his uncle, the celebrated Henry Meiggs, a constructor of railroads in Peru. He overcame almost insurmountable obstacles and finally completed his undertaking. Then, as a rest, he immediately started another of even greater proportions, which was also crowned with success. All in all, you may be assured that there was not a single project of any importance in Costa Rica for a great many years of which he was not the organizer or in which he did not take a leading part.

However, all these activities pale in comparison with the colossal venture that germinated in his fertile brain in 1872, when he sent the first 200 bunches of bananas to New Orleans. This trial shipment received such a warm reception that he continued sending bananas, planting larger expanses of the rich lowlands along the Caribbean and inducing more and more of his friends to engage in the cultivation of this crop.

The humble little boat *Henry Meiggs* that carried the first 200 bunches of bananas to New Orleans has grown to the amazing proportions of the Great White Fleet, consisting of more than 100 vessels, among which are numbered many steel ships especially conditioned for the safe and rapid transport of the fruit which is responsible for the origin of the company and also especially constructed for the rapidly



HARVESTING COFFEE.

After the coffee has been gathered, the women prepare to return home.



A COFFEE TREE LADEN WITH BERRIES.

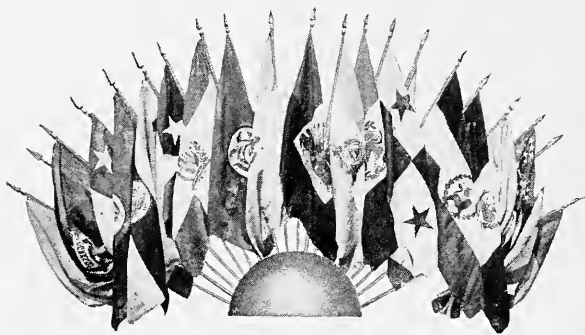
The gathering and preparing of coffee lasts for about 5 months, generally from November to April.

growing passenger traffic over tropical seas. The beautiful but deserted region that Columbus admired in 1502, which remained untouched by progress until the last third of the past century, was transformed by the magic wand of Minor C. Keith, with the devoted cooperation of the Costa Ricans, into a great emporium of wealth within which more than 25,000 individuals live and labor.

The rest of the country could not but feel the powerful impulse of progress shown in the rapid development of the Atlantic zone. As a logical corollary, a parallel evolution took place throughout the interior. The abundance of wealth now in the country demanded greater comforts and pleasures. The new capital, that clean and lovely city of San José, was endowed with an elaborate system of sewers and conduits, magnificent edifices for public offices and hospitals, spacious and beautiful churches, schools and colleges, a sumptuous theater for the recreation of the public, well-paved streets, water supply and sewers, beautiful parks and plazas, commodious markets and fine houses with all modern improvements enclosing patios filled with flowers and trees. All the principal cities and villages were provided with sanitary drainage systems, electric light, and power. Fine schools, churches, and public buildings were constructed in every town, which also had its beautiful park, plaza, and market. Networks of electric tramways, telegraph and telephone lines were extended over the land; wireless communications and airplane passenger, mail, and freight services were inaugurated. But above all, before all else and without rest or economy, the war against ignorance was carried on relentlessly, until now there does not exist a single village without its school. In education, tiny Costa Rica proudly occupies fourth place on the entire American Continent. She takes immense pride in affirming that she has two armies: the military, with 9 barracks and 246 soldiers, as contrasted with the scholastic, having 475 schools, 1,902 teachers, and 51,500 pupils.

Having observed the enormous benefit to their country brought about by the construction of the Atlantic Railroad, the people resolved on new sacrifices and constructed a magnificent railway to the Pacific coast. This is now completely electrified and has tremendously increased the development of the Pacific zone. Today, therefore, the traveler arriving in Puerto Limón may make an interesting and comfortable journey by rail from the Atlantic seaboard to the capital on the balmy and delightful central plateau, where he may change to clean electric trains and continue across the continent to Puntarenas on the Pacific coast, enjoying on his way picturesque panoramas and admiring the astounding results attained in the short space of seventy years by the ant-like persistence and labor of the mere half million people who inhabit this small nation.

(To be concluded next month)



PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Recent acquisitions.—Since these notes were last published, the Library has received 203 books and pamphlets, among which were several interesting shipments.

The Library has received several books from Venezuela through Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union, who has recently returned from a visit to that country. Perhaps the most interesting to citizens of the United States is *Washington en el centenario de Bolívar*, an essay written by the noted Venezuelan scholar Dr. Aristides Rojas on the occasion of the dedication of the statue to Washington in Caracas at the time of the centenary of the birth of Simón Bolívar. In the essay Dr. Rojas publishes correspondence between Bolívar and Washington's family and other pertinent letters. Among the other items in this gift were *Atlas elemental de geografía de Venezuela*, by G. de Agostini (containing colored maps of the country and the individual States, with brief descriptive legends for each State); the second edition of a school textbook, *Geografía de Venezuela*, por H. Nectario M. (a physical, political and administrative geography, with numerous colored maps and illustrations); *El voltaje de Lucila*, por Juan Carlos Bernárdez (a collection of short stories by this contemporary Venezuelan author); and *Venezuela gráfica* (a two-volume work by M. J. Gornés MacPherson, published in Caracas by the Editorial "Patria" in 1929-30, which contains historical and descriptive data on Caracas, other large cities of the Republic and all the States, as well as articles on flags, the national press, Venezuelan numismatics, and the coat of arms of Caracas).

The collection of publications by the Argentine Bureau of Mines and Geology has been augmented by the addition of *Boletín* No. 39

and *Publicaciones* No. 101-106 inclusive, which deal with the production of gold, iron, and petroleum and other fuel.

A large shipment of books and pamphlets from the National Bureau of Mines of Brazil includes monographs, bulletins, reports, and short studies published by the geological and mineralogical service on geology, geography, mineralogy, and paleontology.

Chilean books received included recent historical works and fiction. *Orígenes de Chile*, by Diego Barros Arana, *Don Jorge Edwards*, by Miguel Munizaga, and *¿A dónde va la mujer?* by Amanda Labarca Hubertson, are three of the outstanding books from that country. The first, a two-volume work published in 1934 by Editorial Nascimento, is composed of certain chapters from Barros Arana's *Historia General de Chile* so selected that they present a well-rounded study of the foundations and development of Chilean national life before independence. Emphasis is on the scientific and cultural achievement and social conditions in pre-Hispanic and colonial Chile rather than on political organization.

The second volume is a biography of the founder of the Edwards family of Chile, which has made so great a contribution to that nation. Though his available sources were few, Señor Munizaga presents an interesting account of the life of the physician and patriot who was born in London in 1780, went to Chile in 1804, and died there in 1848. A genealogical table is appended giving the descendants of Don Jorge Edwards to the sixth generation.

Amanda Labarca Hubertson's book on feminism is the latest of her works. The previous ones include a novel, short stories, literary criticism, several books on education and a study of feminine activities in the United States, this published in 1914. *¿A dónde va la mujer?* is a compilation of lectures, studies and articles on feminism written from 1914 to 1934, and complements the earlier volume by showing the growth of the feminist movement in Chile during the last 20 years.

Among the other newly received volumes are the following:

Diccionario português-brasiliiano e brasiliiano-português. Reimpressão integral da edição de 1795, seguida da 2ª parte, até hoje inedita, ordenada e prefaciada por Plínio M. da Silva Ayrosa. [São Paulo, Imprensa oficial de Estado, 1934] 306 p. 23 cm. [A valuable work, hitherto unpublished in part, is offered in this dictionary of Portuguese and Brazilian (that is, Tupi, to which linguistic stock most of the Indians between the River Plate and the Amazon belonged at the time of the Portuguese settlement of Brazil). In addition to reprinting the entire Portuguese-Brazilian dictionary of 1795, a classic work compiled before the middle of the eighteenth century by a missionary to the Indians of Brazil, it contains the Brazilian-Portuguese section announced but never before printed. Sr. Ayrosa, in the introduction, traces the history of both manuscripts and suggests the probable authorship of the whole work. The new material is more than twice as long as the reprinted section, the former containing 190 pages as against 78 in the latter.]

Chile y sus riquezas; obra auspiciada por el Ministerio de relaciones exteriores y recomendada por el Supremo Gobierno. . . . Compilado y editado por la Empresa editora "Atenas". Santiago de Chile. [Imprenta universitaria, 1934?] T. I: 936, viii p. illus., ports., tables, diagrs. 27½ cm. Contents: I. Chile en el momento actual; II. Los gobiernos de Chile; III. Organización gubernativa de Chile; IV. Finanzas del Estado; V. Generalidades geográficas y administrativas; VI. Fundamentos de la economía chilena; VII. Cultura, seguridad y orden; VIII. Comercio (incluyendo política comercial internacional); IX. Minería; X. Agricultura; XI. Pesca y caza; XII. Industrias; XIII. Dirección de obras públicas; XIV. Progreso cultural y turismo. [Though this volume is listed as only volume I of the work, it includes a great deal of material on practically every aspect of Chile.]

Botánica de las plantas endémicas de Chile, para el uso en los colegios superiores y de todos los amigos de la naturaleza, por Otto Urban. . . . 1ª edición, facilitada por el concurso de la Sociedad de profesores alemanes en Chile. Concepción, Soc. imp. y lit. "Concepción", 1934. viii, 291 p. illus., diagrs. 25 cm. [A book more of the popular than of the scientific type, as the author tells us, this volume nevertheless is a practical contribution to the study of Chilean flora. The material is arranged by families, and the book contains 120 illustrations and is well indexed.]

José G. Argomedo, 1810-30, [por] Alejandro Lira. Santiago, Imprenta universitaria, 1934. 230 p. 24½ cm. [Argomedo was born in 1767 and at the time Chilean independence was first proclaimed in 1810 was holding public office; his life from then on was bound up with that of the Republic. As Agustín Edwards says in the introduction, the author has, in writing the biography of his illustrious ancestor, outlined also the fateful first twenty years of Chilean independence.]

Don Eliodoro Yáñez, "La Nación" y otros ensayos. . . [por] Joaquín Edwards Bello. Santiago de Chile, Ediciones Ereilla, 1934. 167 p., 2 l. 20 cm. (Obras completas de Joaquín Edwards Bello, [v.] XVI.) [This volume of the collected works of Edwards Bello contains biographical and other essays.]

Las guerras de Bolívar [por] Francisco Rivas Vicuña. Bogotá, Imprenta nacional, 1934. [Tomo I]: xi p., 1 l., 281 p. plates (maps) 25½ cm. (Biblioteca de historia nacional. Volumen XLIX) Contents: Primera guerra, 1812-14; Formación del alma venezolana. [The Biblioteca de historia nacional continues its policy of reprinting famous histories with volume I of the *Wars of Bolívar*. Volumes I and II of this work were published in Caracas in 1921-22 but are now out of print, and volumes III to VI have not yet been published. The Biblioteca intends to issue the complete set. The history is a valuable contribution to Bolivariana and to the history of La Gran Colombia viewed impartially after a century by a native of Chile.]

Quechuismos usados en Colombia, por Leonardo Tascón. . . . Edición hecha bajo la dirección de Tulio Enrique Tascón y Jorge H. Tascón. [Bogotá] Editorial Santafe [1934] 153 p. 20 cm. [A study presented to the *Academia colombiana de la lengua* in 1919, and now published by the author's sons. The work shows the influence of the Quechua language as it is preserved in the popular speech and geographical terms of the country. Sr. Tascón has followed the plan and spelling of the *Arte y diccionario quechua-español* of Padre Juan G. N. Lobato, which in turn had as its basis the three-hundred-year-old *Diccionario quechua-español* of Padre Diego González Holguín.]

Monografía del café [por] Jorge Carranza Solís, editada bajo los auspicios del Congreso constitucional y de la Secretaría de fomento y agricultura, aprobada por el Centro nacional de agricultura. San José, Imprenta nacional, 1933.

[Tomo I]: 398, iv p. pl. (port.) 25 cm. [The author, in this long study on coffee, discusses its cultivation throughout the world but especially in Costa Rica; the various varieties; favorable climatic and soil conditions; harvesting the crop; diseases of coffee trees; and the physiological benefits derived from the beverage.]

Libro del ilustre Cabildo, justicia e regimiento desta muy noble e muy real ciudad de San Francisco del Quito, 1573-1574, descifrado por Jorge A. Garcés G. Quito [Talleres tipográficos municipales] 1934. 5 p. l., [ix]-xvi, 313 p. plates (incl. facsims.) (1 col.) 28 cm. (Publicaciones del Archivo municipal. [IV]). [This work is the fourth of a series, the first two of which, *Libros primero y segundo de Cabildos de Quito*, were noted in the BULLETIN for July 1934, and the third, *Oficios o cartas al Cabildo de Quito por el Rey de España o el Virrey de Indias, 1552-1568*, in the BULLETIN for October 1934. The quadricentennial edition of the first three volumes has already been exhausted. The fifth volume, covering the years 1575-76, is in preparation. Unfortunately, the Quito archives contain no documentary material for the years 1569 to 1572. To Señor Garcés is again due the credit for preparing for publication the documents of this volume (which should be called *Libro quinto de Cabildos*, since numbers three and four belong to the two volumes dealing with the period 1552-72 for which the Libros de Cabildo are missing) and transcribing them in modern Spanish. The book is made especially interesting by the inclusion of many facsimiles of the original documents.]

Gaceta municipal; número extraordinario, año XIX, No. 79, octubre-diciembre 31 de 1934. 270 p., 1 l. plates (part col.) 28 cm. [With this special number of the *Gaceta municipal*, the municipal council ended its celebration of Quito's fourth centenary. The volume is included here because it contains many excellent historical articles, photographs of Quito past and present, and reproductions in color of works by the artist Miguel de Santiago which are in the monasteries of San Francisco, San Agustín and El Tejar in Quito.]

La nueva Guatemala de la Asunción: terremoto de Santa Marta—fundación en el llano de la Virgen [por] Pedro Péres Valenzuela. Guatemala [Tipografía nacional] 1934. 232 p. 26½ cm. [Using national and local archives as his chief sources of information, the author gives an interesting history of Guatemala City in colonial times; he describes the earthquake of 1717, the removal of the city to its present site in 1775, the origin of famous colonial landmarks, and the aspect of the old and the new cities.]

México en cifras (atlas estadístico) 1934. . . [Publicación de la] Secretaría de la economía nacional, Dirección general de estadística. [Tacubaya, D. F., Impreso en los talleres gráficos de la Dirección de geografía meteorología e hidrología, 1934?] 3 p. l., 90 plates (diagrs.) 32x45 cm. Plates contain legends and relative printed matter on verso. [A new idea in statistical summaries. The Mexican General Bureau of Statistics traces the country's condition in 1934 by means of novel outline maps and charts, easy to understand and easy to read.]

La moral del abogado i de la abogacía [por el] Doctor Tomás Liscano. . . Caracas, Tipografía La Nación, 1934. 3 p. l., 3-140 p., 2 l. 20 cm. [This new book on legal ethics was written as a text-book by the author, a member of the Academy of Political and Social Sciences of Venezuela, and should prove a useful handbook for all prospective lawyers. Its chapters cover the work of lawyers in general, with special emphasis on the profession in Venezuela, the place of woman lawyers, and the value of legal ethics as presented to students. The *Ley de abogados y procuradores*, passed in Venezuela in July 1930, is appended.]

A bibliography of the belles-lettres of Venezuela, by Samuel Montefiore Waxman. . . Cambridge, Mass., Harvard university press, 1934. xii, 145 p.

23½ cm. [One of the series of bibliographies of Spanish-American literature published under the auspices of the Harvard Council on Hispano-American studies. The series is now almost complete.]

The Gomesta manuscript of Maya hieroglyphs and customs, in facsimile. Translated and edited by William Gates. Baltimore, The Maya society, 1935. 2 p. l., 3-13 p. illus., 30, [1] facsims. 23½ cm. (Maya society. Publication No. 7.) [With this volume the Maya Society begins the publication of a series of facsimiles of important unpublished manuscripts.]

Diplomatic correspondence of the United States: inter-American affairs, 1831-1860, selected and arranged by William R. Manning. . . . Washington, Carnegie endowment for international peace, 1935. Volume V: xl p., 2 l., 1015 p. 2 fold. maps. 25 cm. (*Half-title*: Publications of the Carnegie endowment for international peace. Division of international law, Washington.) Contents: Chile and Colombia; Documents 1579-2190d. [With the publication of the fifth volume this set of documents now covers diplomatic correspondence of the United States with Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Central America, Chile and Colombia during 30 years. The collection was begun in 1932 as a sequel to *Diplomatic correspondence of the United States concerning the independence of the Latin American nations*, which was published in 1925 and covered the period 1810-30.]

Bolívar criollo [por] Olga Briceño. Prólogo de Dionisio Pérez. Madrid, Ediciones Nuestra raza [1934]. [Primera edición.] 250 p., 1 l. 19½ cm.

Bolívar libertador [por] Olga Briceño. Prólogo de Cristóbal de Castro. Madrid, Ediciones Nuestra raza [1934]. [Primera edición.] 343 p., 2 l. [These two volumes will be supplemented by a third entitled *Bolívar americano* to form a trilogy. This new life of Bolívar should prove interesting reading, written as it is in the popular biographical style, and being the first biography in Spanish of Bolívar by a woman. The *Bibliography of the Liberator Simón Bolívar*, compiled in this Library in 1933, consisting of 1,424 entries, lists only eleven items by women, of which five are periodical articles, four histories containing material on Bolívar, one a dramatic poem about a single period in Bolívar's life and one (in English) a full length biography. Olga Briceño is a native of Venezuela who is now residing in Spain.]

New periodicals.—The following magazines were received for the first time:

Boletín bibliográfico.—[Órgano de la] Sección propaganda, publicaciones, concursos y exposiciones de la Biblioteca del Ministerio de agricultura de la nación. Buenos Aires, 1934. Enero, febrero, marzo y abril de 1934. 35 p. 22½x15½ cm. Address: Paseo Colón 974, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Mundo femenino.—Buenos Aires, 1935. Año I, N° 1, enero de 1935. 16 p. illus., ports. 44x32 cm. Editor: Dra. Dora Mignone. Address: Rodríguez Peña 307, 2° piso, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Chile para el turista; revista semanal, editada por la Sociedad Muñoz Opazo y de la Puente y cía. Ltda., autorizada por el Departamento de turismo del Ministerio de fomento. Santiago de Chile, 1934. Año I, N° 1, diciembre de 1934. 32 p. illus. 26x19 cm. Editor: Carlos Barrientos R. Address: Oficina Huérfanos 1247, Santiago de Chile.

Revista Osorno; revista regional publicada para la Exposición agrícola ganadera de Osorno de 1934. Osorno, 1934. Año 1, N° 1, diciembre, 1934. 99 p. illus., plates, ports. 26½x18½ cm. Editor: Pedro Viveros. Address: Osorno, Chile.

Acción liberal; publicación de la Casa liberal nacional. Bogotá, 1934. N° 18, año II, julio 31 de 1934. [64] p. illus., ports. 24x17 cm. Editors: Dario Echandía, Dario Samper, A. Forero Benavides. Address: Bogotá, Colombia.

Girardot; órgano de la Cámara de comercio de Girardot; publicación mensual dedicada a trabajar por los intereses comerciales e industriales de la región y del país en general. Girardot, 1934. Volumen III, número XXXVI, diciembre de 1934. 22 p. 27½x20 cm. Editor: R. A. Guzmán-Martínez. Address: Imprenta Girardot, Calle 12, Girardot, Colombia.

Habano; revista tabacalera; órgano oficial de la Asociación de almacenistas y cosecheros de tabaco de Cuba y de la Unión de fabricantes de tabacos y cigarros de Cuba; publicación mensual de Editorial Habano, S. A. La Habana, 1935. Volumen I, número I, febrero de 1935. 60 p. ports., tab., diagr. 28x21½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Ricardo A. Casado. Address: Miguel Aldama 97 (altos), Habana, Cuba.

Orientación; publicación mensual. Pinar del Río, 1935. Vol. I, No 2, febrero 1935. [40] p. 23½x16 cm. Editor: Dr. J. Elpidio Pérez Somossa. Address: Maceo No 7, Pinar del Río, Cuba. ["Por la patria y la escuela. Para el maestro y el niño."]

Revista cubana, editada por la Dirección de cultura, Secretaría de educación. La Habana, 1935. Vol. I, No 1, enero, 1935. 186 p. 24x16 cm. Address: Dirección de cultura, La Habana, Cuba.

Revista de comercio; órgano oficial, editada mensualmente por la Secretaría de comercio. Habana, 1935. Año I, No 1, enero de 1935. 40 p. ports., diagr. 30½x23½ cm. Editor: Dr. Rafael Santos Jiménez. Address: Secretaría de comercio, Habana, Cuba.

Secretaría del trabajo, Revista mensual. La Habana, 1935. Año I, No 1, enero de 1935. 108 p. tables (1 fold.) 23½x15½ cm. Editor: Rafael Rodés. Address: Dirección de la Revista, Secretaría del trabajo, Habana, Cuba.

T D A; revista mensual ilustrada. Habana, 1935. Año III, No 11, enero de 1935. 31 p. 27x20 cm. Editor: Touring drivers association (Director: Eladio Carrasco). Address: Genios 18, Habana, Cuba.

Cosmopolita; ilustración mensual dominicana. Santo Domingo, 1935. No 418, año XVI, enero de 1935. [52] p. illus., ports. (1 col.) 41½x31 cm. Editor: B. Gimbernard. Address: Calle "Padre Billini" No 51, Santo Domingo, República Dominicana.

El Carnaval; periódico humorístico, crítico y satírico. Santo Domingo, 1934. Año I, No 4, 23 de diciembre de 1934. 8 p. 36x26 cm. Weekly. Editor: Miguel Rodríguez O. Address: Arzobispo Meriño No 112, Santo Domingo, República Dominicana.

Boletín del Instituto normal "Manuela Cañizares." Quito, 1934. Año I, No 1, diciembre de 1934. 167 p. illus., ports., tables. 22x15 cm. Quarterly. Editor: Instituto normal "Manuela Cañizares." Address: Directora del Instituto normal "Manuela Cañizares", Quito, Ecuador.

Quito; revista de la Escuela municipal "Suere." Quito, 1934. Año I, No 1, diciembre 6 de 1934. 88 p. plates. 23x16 cm. Address: Escuela municipal "Suere", Quito, Ecuador.

Boletín de la Asociación "José Pedro Varela." Montevideo, 1931. Año I, No 1, julio de 1931. 2 p. 31x22 cm. Monthly. Address: Durazno 1615, Montevideo, Uruguay.

Revista del Ministerio de industrias. Montevideo, 1934. Año I, vol. II, noviembre de 1934. 96 p. illus., tables. 28½x20 cm. Monthly. Editor: Ing. Agr. C. Lemole y Ottado. Address: Ministerio de industrias, Calle Juan Carlos Gómez No 1362, Montevideo, Uruguay.

Intercambio; revista de las Américas. Caracas, 1934. Año I, No 1, 19 de diciembre de 1934. 80 p. illus., ports., diagr., fold. map. 32½x24 cm. Editor: Mario Velázquez. Address: Apartado No 1731, Caracas, Venezuela. [Some articles in Spanish and English.]

PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

NEW YEAR MESSAGE OF THE PRESIDENT OF PERU

In contrast with the troubled international outlook at the beginning of 1934, and despite the effects of the world-wide economic depression, Peru found itself at the end of the year on friendly terms with its neighbors and in a considerably improved economic and financial situation, according to President Óscar R. Benavides' New Year's eve radio address to the nation. After referring to the harmonious relations which exist today between Peru and her sister Republics, President Benavides went on to speak of the encouraging state of public finances: "I am happy to say, on this last day of the year, that the public treasury has met all the obligations for 1934 which have been presented to it. All these payments have been made out of the ordinary revenues without recourse to loans or credit operations, since the treasury has sufficient funds to meet the expenses of this coming month of January and show a surplus in the budget."

IMPROVEMENT IN FOREIGN TRADE DURING 1934

"With regard to our foreign commerce," the President said, "the results have exceeded the most optimistic estimate. The value of the total trade through October 31, that is, for only 10 months, amounts to 388,221,437 gold soles as compared with 359,631,980 gold soles for the whole year 1933. Estimating the value of the foreign trade for November and December at 40,000,000 gold soles each, the total for the year 1934 should be 468,000,000 gold soles, an increase of 30 percent over the previous year. The value of imports through October 31 was 138,974,033 gold soles and of exports 249,247,404 gold soles, thus leaving a favorable trade balance of 110,273,371 gold soles, which represents an 80 percent excess of exports over imports. These figures not only show clearly the wealth of our resources and the enormous possibilities which exist for the future development of our national economy, but also are indicative of the salutary effects of the policy which my Government is following in order to bring about a readjustment of all activities contributing to the normal development of the country."

These high foreign trade figures, exceeded only four times during the last 20 years, were reflected in the amounts of import and export duties collected during the year. They amounted to 38,839,506

gold soles for the first 11 months of 1934 as compared with 28,363,640 gold soles for the whole of 1933.

EDUCATION

Referring to education, President Benavides stated that the amount spent for this purpose during 1934 exceeded the 1933 appropriation by over two million soles; that there were 573 more schools functioning than in 1933; and that in 1934 there were 7,630 more children enrolled in the schools than in the previous year.

HIGHWAY CONSTRUCTION

Three hundred and eleven miles of highway were constructed during 1934. About 2,700 men were working on the Central Highway, which will connect Lima with Oroya, at the end of the year. "This important highway," the President said, "116 miles long, should be finished about the end of January. Simultaneously, improvements are being made on the highway between Oroya and Cerro de Pasco and on the branch linking Huancayo with the highway to Ayacucho. Thus, within a few months it will be possible to motor from Lima to the Departments of Junín, Huánuco, Huancafélica and Ayacucho.

"In the Department of Junín work is proceeding just as actively on the road from Concepción to Puerto Ocopa so that it may be completed soon. By means of this highway it will be possible to develop the rich forest region of Satipo, Pangoa, and the pampas of the Gran Pajonal.

"In the north, intensive work is being done on the highway which is to provide direct communication with Tumbes and the border region, as well as on the road to the interior, from Piura to Huanca-bamba. In the Department of Ancash, the highway which crosses the Cañón del Pato has been completed, thus providing road and rail communication from Huaraz and the Huaylas Valley to the port of Chimbote.

"In the Department of Huánuco the construction of the highway from Huánuco to Pucallpa is proceeding rapidly. A few days ago one of the principal sections, as far as Puerto Durand, was completed and my Government hopes that during 1935 work will be continued as far as Tingo María on the banks of the Huallaga River. In the south of the Republic, the principal and most difficult section of the road between Arequipa and Puno has also just been completed, as far as the pampas of Salinas." Other roads on which work is proceeding actively are those connecting Arequipa and Cuzco; Cuzco and the gold-producing region of Marcapata, Tahuantisuyo and Paucartambo; Moquegua and the Departments of Arequipa and Tacna.

IRRIGATION

Every valley from Tumbes to Tacna, the President said, is included in a general plan to protect land under cultivation from floods and drought alike. The important valleys of Chira, Sechura, Lambayeque, Pisco and Ica, have been restored to agricultural prosperity and important irrigation projects have been carried out in several other regions. "The work of greatest value at present under way," said President Benavides, "is the irrigation of the pampas of La Joya in the Department of Arequipa. . . . The Government hopes that by the middle of 1935 it will be possible to open to cultivation the first 5,000 hectares (12,355 acres) of the total 20,000 hectares to be irrigated." In the same Department a similar irrigation project for the reclamation of 4,940 acres is to be carried out on the pampas of Yauca. On the pampas of the Esperanza irrigation system more than 2,450 acres are ready for cultivation, and work is already going on for the enlargement of the system so as to bring a total of nearly 10,000 acres under irrigation.

In connection with its agricultural program the Government is following the policy of distributing the land in order to encourage small and medium-sized holdings.

OTHER PUBLIC WORKS

Among other public works opened during the year was the Callao Port Terminal. Its construction, halted in March 1932, was recommenced at the beginning of the year and finished last October, thus placing Callao in the front rank among world ports.—G. A. S.

LATIN-AMERICAN INSTITUTE FOR RACE AND CULTURE STUDIES

In a preliminary leaflet published by the University Museum [University of Pennsylvania], Philadelphia, under date of February 1935, the newly formed Latin-American Institute for Race and Culture Studies defines its purpose and plan as follows:

For a long time students interested in the aboriginal peoples and cultures of Latin-America have recognized the need for the co-ordination and organization of research activities. It is believed that such a step will give impetus to the work, classify and catalogue research problems, and bring about fuller cooperation among the institutions and individuals concerned. . . .

To satisfy these demands, the Latin-American Institute has been organized, and this leaflet will be published monthly as its general news letter. The primary purpose of this publication, which will be sent to all members of the institute, is to disseminate news and information of general interest. . . .

Membership in the institute does not call for the payment of dues, and imposes no obligation of any sort whatsoever, and this monthly leaflet will be sent to all members. An interest in Latin-American culture studies is all that is required to bring a name before the council to be considered for membership.

Thirty-two of the leading authorities in the field have already accepted membership on the Advisory Council.

THE MEXICAN POPULAR CREDIT LAW

For many years the Mexican Government has striven to establish a system of credit for laborers, artisans, tradesmen, and professional men who, because of their limited resources are unable to borrow through regular banking channels and thus are forced to pay exorbitant rates of interest. The last effort made in this direction was in August 1933, when a 2,000,000 peso fund was established to organize and promote cooperative associations through which such individuals could unite to secure credit.¹ The law creating the fund, however, was never put into effect, chiefly, according to Señor Narciso Bassols, Secretary of the Treasury, because it stipulated that the credit unions should be organized and function in accordance with the regulations of the General Law of Credit Institutions for this kind of association, thus establishing a series of conditions which the individuals to be benefited were unable to meet. In order to reduce these requirements to a minimum, President Cárdenas has issued a new law² which has an advantage over the previous legislation in that it is a complete statute written in plain language, thus simplifying the promotion work which must be undertaken in order to bring about a widespread organization of credit unions.

An effort is being made to have these credit unions formed within trade unions, cooperatives, and other group organizations where there is a unity of economic interests among the members. Membership in the credit union is restricted to laborers with an annual salary of not more than 3,000 pesos; artisans who attend to their shops themselves, with the help of their families, or with no more than five employees; petty tradesmen whose establishments do not produce a net annual income of more than 3,000 pesos; and professional men whose average annual income does not exceed 5,000 pesos. If a credit union is formed by workingmen, they must belong to the same labor union, whether organized according to trade or to company, or they must work for the same employer. If formed by artisans, petty tradesmen, or professional men, their economic activities and interests

¹ The law providing for the establishment of this fund was discussed in the January 1934 issue of the BULLETIN, p. 68.

² Ley de Crédito Popular, *Diario Oficial*, Mexico City, February 23, 1935.

must be similar. There must be at least 10 members in each credit union, whose capital of not less than 5,000 pesos is to come from the admission fees of its members, who may pay such fee in easy installments. The internal organization of the credit union is based on cooperative principles as to management and division of profits.

The kind, amount and terms of the loans which a credit union may make to its members have been strictly limited. Loans for the purchase of raw materials or the payment of expenses directly connected with an industrial or commercial enterprise (*préstamos de habilitación o avío*) are limited to 65 percent of the estimated income of the concern during the term of the loan, which may not run more than 18 months. Loans to purchase machinery, equipment, or tools, to carry out necessary improvements, or to pay for debts contracted for these purposes in the year immediately preceding (*préstamos refaccionarios*) are limited to 80 percent of the estimated profits of the debtor during the term of the loan and 50 percent of the value of the real estate, machinery, and permanent fixtures of the concern. This kind of loan must be repaid within a 5-year period. Loans on real estate must be invested in the purchase, construction or installation of plants or shops or in permanent machinery and equipment. Their size is limited to 50 percent of the value of the real estate mortgaged as security and to 30 percent when the value of the machinery or equipment represents more than half the value of the real estate mortgaged. They must be repaid within 10 years. In addition to these three kinds of loans the law provides for emergency loans secured by the signature of two members or of an outsider of recognized solvency for amounts not to exceed 10 percent of the annual salary of laborers or 15 percent of the gross income of artisans, petty tradesmen, or professional men, to be repaid within one year. An individual may not obtain more than one kind of loan unless the payments he is making plus the ordinary expenses of his business do not exceed 80 percent of his gross income.

The two million peso fund previously referred to will be used not only to organize and supervise credit unions but also to supply the initial capital for their credit operations, as a guarantee fund in their dealings with the banks. The fund, to be augmented by additional appropriations by the Federal Government, is administered by a commission composed of representatives of the Bank of Mexico, its member banks, and the credit unions. The law provides that the fund may be used only to: (1) increase up to 50 percent the paid-in capital of the credit unions; (2) pay any losses incurred by member banks of the Bank of Mexico in their operations with the unions up to 10 percent of their total annual credit operations with them; (3) discount credit instruments endorsed or guaranteed by credit unions;

(4) endorse credits obtained by the unions in order to make loans to their members; (5) rediscount up to 70 percent of the emergency loans which the credit unions may have discounted at member banks of the Bank of Mexico; and (6) spend not more than 100,000 pesos to cover the expenses of organizing and supervising the credit unions, although if this amount is insufficient the Federal treasury will defray any additional expenses.—G. A. S.

BRIEF NOTES

CONSTRUCTION IN SANTIAGO IN 1934

The value of new buildings during 1934 in Santiago, Chile, was about 121,000,000 pesos (roughly \$5,000,000 at the present rate of exchange), according to a report from Edward A. Dow, American consul general there. This was more than three times that of 1934; the marked increase was due to a law providing that improvements completed before the end of 1935 should be tax exempt for 10 years. Building activity centered largely in the business and better residential sections of the city, although a beginning was made to provide separate homes as well as new tenements for skilled labor.

The adoption of a building code in 1930 raised construction standards and the young architects recently graduated from the National University introduced modern design. The plentiful supply of labor and of most materials has fostered the use of cement, brick, tile, steel, and iron in the new buildings, and fireproof and to some extent earthquake proof construction has shown a notable increase not only in Santiago but also in other important cities.

HOMESTEAD GRANT LAW IN COSTA RICA

Every male citizen of Costa Rica who is legally of age has the right, according to Law no. 29 of December 4, 1934, to a single grant of 20 hectares (approximately 50 acres) from the public domain, provided that he does not already own as much or more land. In addition to setting forth the regulations which must be observed in the case of each grant, the law also indicates lands which have been added to the public domain since April 1882.

CHANGES IN THE CIVIL CODE OF CHILE AFFECTING WOMEN

Certain articles in the Civil Code of Chile were amended by Law no. 5521, which went into effect on December 19, 1934, to make the status of women more nearly equal to that of men before the law.

Among the matters treated are the right of guardianship, the ability of married women to sign contracts and exercise a profession or be otherwise gainfully employed, the rights and privileges of minors, and property rights.

FRUITGROWERS ASSOCIATION BEING FORMED IN CHILE

At a meeting of prominent fruitgrowers held in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Commerce in Santiago, Chile, last November, proposed bylaws for the Fruitgrowers Association of Chile were approved, a constitution was signed, and a provisional board of directors was appointed to take final measures for establishing the association.

In December the board met and agreed, among other matters, to take immediate steps for organizing the different branches of the fruit industry into independent commercial societies and to request that the General Statistics Bureau prepare as quickly as possible a census of fruit-growing property to provide exact knowledge as to which orchards are now productive and which will be bearing within the next few years.

The Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Commerce has already agreed to give preference to members of the association in filling the fruit import quotas of foreign countries.

VENEZUELAN AVIATION REGULATIONS

Regulations for the aviation law of Venezuela, issued by President Gómez in a decree signed on December 12, 1934, went into effect on January 15, 1935.

NEW CONSTITUTION FOR PROVINCE OF BUENOS AIRES

On November 23, 1934, the Constituent Convention of the Province of Buenos Aires, which had been meeting in La Plata to revise the constitution of that province, approved a new constitution.

CONFERENCE OF THE NEW EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

An unofficial American conference scheduled for this year is the *North and Central American Conference of the New Education Fellowship*, which will meet in Mexico City from August 26 to 31. Educators will attend from Canada, the United States, Mexico, and the Caribbean countries.



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THE CAPITOL, SANTIAGO, CHILE

JUNE

1935

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

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HIS EXCELLENCY GEN. MAXIMILIANO HERNÁNDEZ MARTÍNEZ
PRESIDENT OF EL SALVADOR.

Inaugurated March 1, 1935, for a 4-year term.



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THE NINTH PAN AMERICAN SANITARY CONFERENCE

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THE Ninth Pan American Sanitary Conference, which met in Buenos Aires, Argentina, in November, 1934, proved to be one of the most interesting of this important series. For the first time in the history of these conferences every American Republic was represented. All the delegates were greatly impressed by the cordial hospitality of the people of Argentina, particularly by the interest displayed by high officials of the Argentine Government. It was also gratifying to observe the genuine manifestations of good will on the part of the delegates from all Republics to and for one another, although this has always been a characteristic of the Pan American Sanitary Conferences.

The inaugural session of the conference was attended by His Excellency, General Agustín P. Justo, President of the Republic of Argentina; His Excellency, the Minister of the Interior, Dr. Leopoldo Melo; His Excellency, the Minister of Foreign Relations and Public Worship, Dr. Carlos Saavedra Lamas; and other high officials of the National and local governments, together with members of the diplomatic corps, and many distinguished persons from other countries. His Excellency, Dr. Carlos Saavedra Lamas, presided.

¹ Delegate to the Eighth and Ninth Pan American Sanitary Conferences.

The members of the organizing committee, and the Argentine officials who made themselves responsible for the comfort and welfare of the delegates, as well as for the success of the work of the conference, were indefatigable in their efforts. The entire proceedings were most faithfully recorded, and have been promptly delivered to the Pan American Sanitary Bureau for publication in the near future.

The selection of Bogotá, Colombia, as the seat of the Tenth Conference was most opportune, and it is felt that this fact alone assures in great measure the success of the next reunion.

It will be recalled that the Pan American Sanitary Conferences and their executive organ, the Pan American Sanitary Bureau, were organized in Washington, D. C., in 1902, under authority granted by the Second International Conference of American States.

The purpose of these organizations, as defined by the authority creating them, is to provide a medium of cooperation among the health authorities of the 21 American Republics "towards securing and maintaining efficient and modern sanitary conditions in all their respective ports and territories to the end that quarantine restrictions may be reduced to a minimum and finally abolished."

Much has been accomplished as a result of the work of the previous eight conferences and of the work of the Pan American Sanitary Bureau. It must not be forgotten, of course, that improved health conditions, particularly in ports and large cities throughout the Americas, have resulted from improved water supplies, safe milk supplies, better and safer methods of disposing of body wastes, and last but not least, concerted effort in combating all communicable diseases, particularly such pestilential diseases as plague, cholera, smallpox, and yellow fever. Credit for this work must be given to the peoples of the countries themselves, working through their Health Departments, their Public Works Departments, and social agencies; and, particularly in yellow fever, through cooperative effort with such bodies as the Rockefeller Foundation which, together with the Governments concerned, has accomplished so much in combating this disease. The Sanitary Conferences and the Sanitary Bureau have always stimulated, encouraged, and aided in every way possible all such efforts to improve health conditions and to facilitate commercial relations by obviating unnecessary and drastic quarantines; finally, by fostering a spirit of cooperation and good will among all the American Republics, the Sanitary Conferences and the Sanitary Bureau have contributed materially to bring about these more nearly ideal conditions.

It is difficult to realize today that during the last half of the nineteenth century wide-spread epidemics of such diseases as typhoid fever, diphtheria, smallpox, cholera, yellow fever and, in the Orient, bubonic plague, were still common occurrences, and that as late as the close

of the century, with few exceptions, drastic and costly quarantines were about the only methods by which health authorities attempted to control the spread of disease, particularly of such diseases as plague, cholera, and yellow fever, in both international and domestic commerce. In striking contrast, a resort at the present time to actual quarantine, such as the detention of vessels, passengers and crews for a week or ten days as was formerly not unusual, would be to confess that cooperative, and particularly local, efforts had somewhere broken down; that some nation or community had failed to discharge its obligations by allowing disease to get beyond control, thus becoming a menace to other nations or communities. While the right to detain common carriers if this should become necessary is always retained, to be obliged to exercise this right today is to confess that some country has been, in a measure, derelict in its duty in not preventing such a carrier from becoming infected.

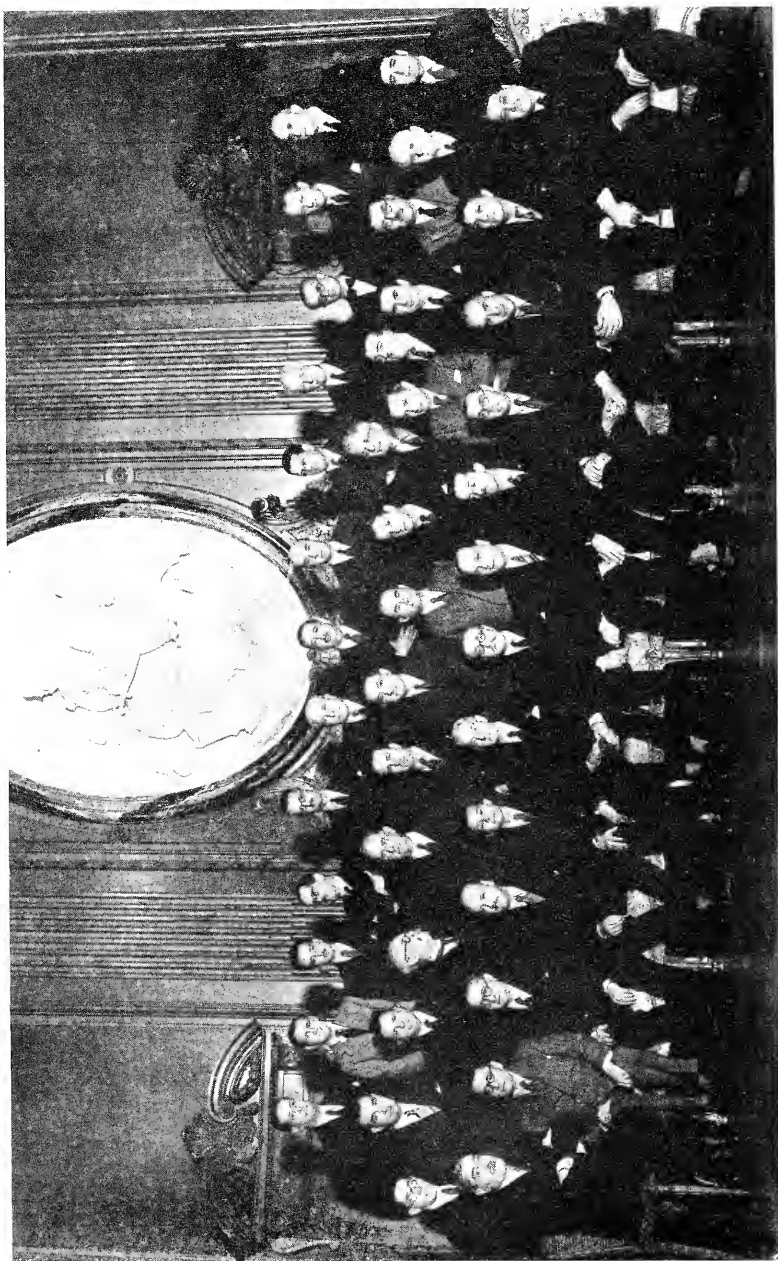
In order to help in a further understanding of the work of the Ninth Pan American Sanitary Conference, let us recall the fact that the Second Sanitary Conference adopted what is known as the Washington Convention, which, when it was modified by the Seventh Pan American Sanitary Conference in Habana, Cuba, in 1924, became the Pan American Sanitary Code, an important sanitary treaty which has been ratified by all save one of the American Republics. Moreover, its provisions are in effect in the country which so far has not ratified it formally.

In accordance with the purpose for which the conferences were created, the Ninth Pan American Sanitary Conference adopted resolutions interpreting certain provisions of the Pan American Sanitary Code, which still further liberalize and simplify our international quarantine procedures. Among these may be mentioned a resolution which exempts airplanes from the necessity of obtaining bills of health except under unusual conditions; a resolution authorizing methods of deratization of vessels other than by fumigation; and also one exempting vessels from fumigation provided they are properly rat-proofed and reasonably free from rats.

After a thorough study of the text of the recently drafted International Convention for Aerial Navigation, applicable to airplanes operating in all parts of the world, the conference unanimously recommended that all Governments adhere to and ratify its provisions.

Similar action was taken with regard to the International Sanitary Convention of Paris.

The action of the conference in approving these sanitary treaties is of transcendental importance, both from the viewpoint of preventing the international spread of quarantinable diseases, and also in facilitating international commerce.



DELEGATES TO THE NINTH PAN AMERICAN SANITARY CONFERENCE AND SPECIAL GUESTS.

The twenty-one American republics were represented at the Ninth Sanitary Conference which met in Buenos Aires in November last.

Another very important problem on which action was taken by the conference was that of the present status of yellow fever. Regulations for the control and eradication of this disease, which have already proved of great value in combating yellow fever in Brazil, were approved by the conference for similar work in other countries.

New discoveries reveal the fact that the control and eradication of this disease is a much more serious matter than was thought a few years ago. Until comparatively recently it was believed that there was only one species of mosquito that would convey yellow fever. This insect, the most common vector, does not breed in ground water, a circumstance that makes it easy to combat. It was also a generally accepted theory that the eradication of yellow fever from large centers of population would be followed automatically by its disappearance from rural populations in the vicinity; in other words, that yellow fever could not exist in sparsely settled areas without there being nearby one or more large cities where the disease was continuously present, the city acting as a reservoir for the reinfestation of rural districts.

These views have changed. Laboratory experiments have shown that there are at least a dozen potential vectors of yellow fever, including one that is unknown. Field studies have revealed the fact that this unknown vector is, in the Republic of Brazil at least, probably responsible for the continuous presence of this disease, or of its infectious agent, in many inland rural districts and small towns.

A number of American Governments, particularly the Government of Brazil, in cooperation with the Rockefeller Foundation, are carrying out extensive research in areas where yellow fever was formerly endemic, and every effort is being made not only to prevent the spread of yellow fever, but to eradicate existing foci.

Similar work is being carried out in Africa, though not so effectively, in the large tropical areas where yellow fever still exists.

The rapid development of aerial transportation requires the greatest vigilance on the part of health authorities to limit the spread of yellow fever.

One of the most hopeful features of the yellow fever situation today is the discovery of a process for immunizing against the disease. If, as seems probable, this immunizing process can be sufficiently developed and placed within the reach of all those residing in, or traveling to and from, yellow fever infested areas, it will no doubt materially aid in solving this vexing problem.

In addition to the matters already mentioned, the conference deliberated upon and approved many other important sanitary measures. Among the problems upon which action was taken may be mentioned the following: Public health organization; coordination of Federal,

State, and municipal services; vital statistics; the relation of hospital care to the public health; malaria; milk in its relation to public health; pre-natal and infant hygiene; school hygiene; tuberculosis; leprosy; snake and spider bites; alcoholism; typhus fever; improvement of water supplies; coordination of Pan American institutions; and popular education as an aid in public health work.

It will be asked how a body, which meets for only a couple of weeks, and only once in from three to five years, can accomplish very much that is worth while.

The answer is that these conferences operate through their permanent executive organ, the Pan American Sanitary Bureau, consisting of a Directing Council and scientific and other personnel. The Sanitary Bureau is located in Washington, D. C., being housed in the building of the Pan American Union, with which it closely cooperates.

While it is too early to determine the results of the work outlined by the Ninth Pan American Sanitary Conference, it may be said that it is a continuance, an elaboration, of the work already planned. The way in which the Pan American Sanitary Bureau operates may be illustrated by the following excerpt taken from the report of the Director, Surgeon General Hugh S. Cumming:

. . . In 1920, at the meeting of the Sixth Pan American Sanitary Conference in Montevideo, the Pan American Sanitary Bureau was reorganized and shortly thereafter began in a small way its present work. Step by step the Bureau has endeavored to expand its activities and increase its usefulness by fostering international cooperation and by stimulating and aiding the health authorities of affiliated Republics in their efforts to prevent the spread of disease and to eradicate it from their territories. At the same time, the Bureau acts as a consulting office whose services are available for use by the health authorities of all American Republics, consultations being invited on all matters pertaining to preventive medicine, hygiene and the protection of the public health. It also functions as a distributing center of current information regarding the presence of communicable diseases, the measures being taken for their control, and the most recent approved methods of combating them. It is the regional agency of the International Office of Public Health of Paris for collecting and transmitting reports of communicable disease occurring in the American Republics, having been made so by the Eighth Pan American Sanitary Conference at Lima, Peru. Reciprocally, the Bureau receives from the International Office similar information for the Eastern Hemisphere which it transmits regularly to the directing heads of the Health Departments of all the American Republics.

The Bureau endeavors to function as a harmonizing agency when conflicting interests of affiliated countries are involved. Not infrequently there arise honest misunderstandings and misconceptions, generally due to a lack of sufficient information or of more definite background. Sometimes outbreaks of disease in one country cause great alarm in others, particularly if such outbreaks are featured, perhaps exaggerated, in the daily press, a circumstance which tends to cause health authorities in uninfected countries to be stampeded into resorting to drastic, even obsolete, quarantine measures.

. . . In contingencies such as I have just mentioned it devolves upon the Sanitary Bureau to obtain and disseminate authoritative information with regard to the actual situation and, if necessary, to remind all countries concerned of their treaty obligations in order to limit quarantine activities to a minimum of restrictive measures compatible with the public safety.

. . . A very important work of the Bureau is the publication of the *Pan American Sanitary Bulletin*, a monthly journal printed in Spanish, Portuguese, French and English, and dedicated to the dissemination of information relating to hygiene and public health and the cultivation of good will. It is sent without charge to physicians and others connected with Departments of Health, both National and local, and to certain others who are more than casually interested in public health.

. . . In conclusion it may be said that the Pan American Sanitary Bureau is a permanent international body, whose usefulness is limited only by its resources, by the powers granted it, by willingness on the part of affiliated Governments to accept its services, and by the wisdom of those who guide its destinies.



CHILE OF OUR DAY

By A. K. C. PALMER

Director, Chile-American Association, Inc.

WHEN a citizen of the United States arrives in Chile there is a curious sensation of being at home and at the same time in a foreign country. This sensation is particularly keen in Santiago, the capital. The home feeling comes from many directions: the newsboys rushing through the streets with the latest editions of the excellent Santiago papers, the skyscrapers being built at night with flood lights, the advertisements carrying many well-known American names, the automobiles with their sound apparatus calling attention to products known throughout the United States. It comes also from the well dressed women on the streets, the cocktail hour, the food one has at the excellent hotels which may be typically American if desired. Particularly it comes from the energy of the people one meets.

On the other hand there are things typically Chilean which bring up the other side of the picture: The varied and delicious sea food which one does not have at home, the rich wines with their subtle bouquet, the flowers on Santa Lucía and San Cristóbal, two charming parks rising on hills within the city of Santiago. The foreign atmosphere also is created by the many picturesque venders of woolen rugs, all hand-work from the looms of Araucanian Indians, the shops with their ornate silver jewelry, copper pots of strange and alluring form and above all the riot of flowers on the walls of houses, the beautiful boulevard of Las Delicias, and the combination of temperate and sub-tropical zones which makes Chile in fact the California of the south.

The hotels were crowded last season—our winter and the Chilean summer—with an ever increasing multitude of people who find in Chile a playground which rests tired eyes and minds. It is a place to grow young in, offering a paradise for the fisherman, the mountain-climber, the person seeking the diversion that is abundant at Viña del Mar and other seashore resorts bathed by the limitless Pacific. And so it comes about that as one passes along the streets all the world goes by: Argentinians, Peruvians, Germans, British and many citizens of the United States, who live in Chile or who have come by plane or steamer to pass a few days in this country so old and yet so young.

For those who visited Chile only two years ago a remarkable change is evident, and this change is notable in every direction: In the people, the many new buildings, the life in the shops, the lack of unemployed.

To such an extent is this true that it is impossible not to marvel. For Chile two years ago was very unhappy, crushed by an acute depression such as the country had not known in a hundred years. The manufacture of synthetic nitrate and the surplus of copper had struck Chile a stunning blow; there was little demand for the chief products that the country had to offer the world in exchange for the world's goods. But Chile is Chile after all, and this country which has weathered so many storms and fought so many battles was not to be vanquished by any depression no matter how severe.

That this latter statement is true is shown by the situation today, merely some 730 days from the low point. New and refurbished motor cars flash through the streets and there is no question about supplies of gasoline; the Transandine road is operating, airplanes are doing a splendid business on the line rising above the Andes to Argentina and on those running north along the coast. Shipping service is normal and fine new vessels are entering Chilean harbors with the flags of the United States and European countries at the masthead. The shortage of wheat, so acute two years ago, has given place to a surplus.

A start has been made in the adjustment of the difficult foreign debt situation, and large amounts of frozen credits have been released directly or through the medium of compensation agreements, while the government is steadily reducing its internal obligations. The crisis in the nitrate industry has been eased by the formation of a new organization which gives promise of helping notably, while copper production has again swung into encouraging tonnage. Extraordinary progress has been made in expanding and strengthening national industries which even before the depression were active, and dependence on foreign countries for a wide variety of products has been greatly modified. A building boom has struck the country, particularly Santiago, and night and day shifts are working; agriculture has improved and the Government is calling on science and modern practice to make the improvement greater; Chile's original wealth, gold, is being taken from the hills in steadily increasing quantities, and it is indeed a fact that any Chilean who wishes a job, in either country or city, may have it.

This improvement is due to many things. Increase in the world price for gold has made it profitable to work deposits that before could not produce returns, and several thousand men are now active, with \$7,000,000 in gold being recovered annually. The depreciated peso stimulated agriculture and national industry, the price of wool has improved on world markets, and nitrate exports have been helped by the compensation agreements. Likewise the slight improvement in world trade has benefited the copper mines, while tourist traffic has proved a source of steady and increasing income. The exchange

of goods with Argentina and Peru has increased, and the country is recovering from the 1928-1929 boom psychology that did much to unsettle minds and hopes.

Above all the people of the country are alive to the problems of the day and are doing much to ease them. The Government and business, foreign and domestic, are cooperating earnestly, and trade and industrial groups are doing their utmost to bring about constructive effort and advance.

AGRICULTURE

Although mining is generally rated as Chile's principal industry, the fact is that 40 per cent of the people derive their living from the land, against 23.8 per cent in industry, 11 per cent in trade and 4.5 per cent in mining. Chilean agriculture is in a satisfactory position today and has been greatly helped by the depreciation of the peso, to such an extent that farmers have been able to liquidate a large portion of their indebtedness and place themselves in quite a comfortable state. Chile still imports cattle and various agricultural products, but intensive efforts are now being made to reduce importations. A notable fact is that the consumption of nitrate on the farms of Chile, the country with the largest deposits of natural nitrate in the world, has only recently reached an important tonnage and it is believed that this will mark a considerable step in advance for Chilean farmers.

At present agricultural matters in Chile are ably cared for by the Department of Agriculture, while the University of Chile offers college courses in the Institute of Agronomy. The Department of Agriculture has divisions devoted to forestry, animal industry, veterinary science, agricultural economics, viticulture, agricultural schools, agrarian exports, agrarian credits and so on. The department is constantly extending its work on behalf of farmers and is providing them with grades of selected seeds. It also has charge of the prevention of plant and animal diseases and is quick to adopt any method or practice that is developed abroad.

Chilean agriculture owes a large part of its progress to the National Agricultural Society which was founded on May 18, 1838. This organization has been the real foundation on which has been erected the excellent structure of Chilean agriculture, and although many of the functions of the society have been taken over by the Government, the work of the organization still continues a powerful stimulant to the agricultural life of the country. The society brought the first farming machinery to Chile and developed practice in the mechanization of agriculture; it has been very active in organizing agricultural exhibitions and has been outstanding in educational work and the

publication of material having to do with farming in its many branches. It has a Biological Institute, experimental stations where experiments are carried on for the purpose of improving animal and plant stocks, and is constantly engaged in investigating plant and animal diseases.

The society is directed by a council and at present has 2,000 members from all sections of the republic. In effect it is a national body representing the rural population of the country and supplementing, frequently initiating, the work of the Department of Agriculture. The society gives farming interests a powerful and united voice in



A STOCK FARM IN CHILE.

The progress made in various phases of Chilean agriculture is in part attributed to the excellent work of the Department of Agriculture, the National Agricultural Society, and the Agrarian Credit Bank.

national affairs, and is able to respond more quickly to the needs and desires of its members than could be true for any governmental department. There is no doubt that in its life of nearly a century the society has been of vital aid in countless situations affecting agrarian interests.

Of great importance in the agricultural structure of Chile is the Agrarian Credit Bank, which performs many of the services that have recently been established by the Government of the United States for the relief of agriculture in this country. The Chilean institution carefully studies general conditions in the rural sections, and provides advice and assistance in the matter of new crops, as well as ways and means to increase production and to enlarge the herds of

cattle. In order to prevent distress sales the agricultural bank makes loans on agricultural products in warehouse, advances money for the purchase of breeding stock, comes to the relief of farmers when crops have been damaged by storms, provides for concessions on notes due from farmers when conditions make such necessary and is an ever present support for agricultural interests.

Chile is a large producer of wheat, barley and other cereals as well as fruits and vegetables in great variety. Chilean honey-dew melons are well known in the United States, and those interested in agriculture are steadily increasing the production of new varieties of fruit. An important section of the agrarian population of Chile is engaged in the wine industry, and the fine wines of Chile are rapidly becoming well known and popular in the United States.

MINING

Chile's fame as a mineral producing country is not only well deserved, but is also the result of the fact that 85 per cent of exports are mineral products. This mineral wealth is present in great variety and includes gold, silver, copper, cobalt, lead, zinc, manganese, coal, nitrate, iron, borate, salt, sulphur and other products. The principal minerals exploited, however, are gold, silver, copper, iron and coal.

Gold is found in the coastal range of mountains and in the Andes. Silver is quite abundant in the mountains from Santiago north, while vast deposits of copper are found both in the coastal ranges and in the Andes. Abundant supplies of nitrate are found in the north and in sections extending from the coast to the western slopes of the Andes; there is sufficient nitrate in Chile, in the beds so far explored, to assure normal production for a century, although the reserve is far greater. Various by-products are obtained from nitrate, the best known being iodine. Bituminous coal deposits are extensive and reserves are estimated at 1,200,000,000 tons, of which 654,000,000 have been explored.

Not only does the mineral production of Chile provide the country with the larger portion of its foreign exchange, it also offers to agriculture and industry an important market for their products among the workers employed in mining activities. The decline in mineral production after the 1929 depression was the chief cause of the critical years through which Chile has passed, but today production is back to the point it attained during the first six months of 1927, shortly before the extraordinary activity which terminated in 1928 and 1929. It may be said therefore that Chile has reached the level of "normal" years.

Production of silver has steadily declined in Chile, but with the high prices for the metal, output is increasing. Production of gold, on the

other hand, is one of the romances of modern times and the yellow metal brought out of the ground has increased some 600 per cent since 1932. Various causes operated in this notable change: people turned to the hills in search of gold and the government assisted the work as an unemployment measure, the depreciated peso made the work remunerative and a rise in the world price of gold brought still further rewards. Production of gold in 1932 was 2,611 pounds and in 1934 it amounted to 16,358 pounds. There were 21,670 men employed in this work in December, 1934, but the number is declining due to the resumption of activity in other branches.



CHUQUICAMATA MINE, CHILE.

Improvement in the copper market is a factor in Chile's economic recovery. From 1932 to 1934 exports of copper, the chief mineral product of Chile, increased more than 50 percent in value.

In spite of the great mineral wealth possessed by Chile, it is clearly recognized that the future cannot offer the same security from this source that was true of the past. In former times, a large portion of government revenues was derived from the export tax on nitrate, but world conditions do not justify the hope that this situation can be renewed. A balanced economy must thus be sought by developing agricultural resources, increasing industrial operations so as to reduce dependence on imported goods, and particularly by promoting tourist traffic, which can offer very substantial returns and thus tend to compensate loss that may occur in other exports, for tourist traffic is technically an export.

MANUFACTURING

During the past 20 years, Chile has given much attention to manufacturing, but it required the dark years after 1929 and the loss of foreign purchasing power as a result of the decline in mineral exports, together with the depreciation of the peso, to stimulate the latent inventive and industrial ability of the people to a quite extraordinary extent. Industry now employs 23.8 per cent of the working population, it is second only to agriculture in importance and is destined to play an outstanding role in the national economy of the future.

The variety of industrial products made in Chile today is comprehensive and includes paints of all kinds, bottles and glassware, cigarettes, bar-iron, refractory materials, edible and industrial oils, soaps, glue, glycerine, chemical products, candles, fertilizers, paper and cardboard, sugar, wines and alcoholic liquors, beer, coffee substitutes, toys, tiles, canned goods of various sorts, furniture, macaroni, rolled oats, milk products, pharmaceutical goods, hardware, perfumery, electrical goods, insecticides, inks, enamel ware, aluminum ware, cement, biological products, flour, boots and shoes, cotton, wool and silk, textiles, rugs, roofing materials, tin ware, sanitary fittings and so on through a long list.

Great assistance is being given industry by the Department of Manufacturing Industries, which has jurisdiction over patents and trademarks and otherwise is active in many fields. The Chilean department has under continuous scrutiny matters relating to customs duties and subsidies to industry, while investigation is constantly being made of the possibilities for industries already operating or for new enterprises. Close attention is given the matter of reduction of costs so that wider markets may be obtained, and the department is ready at all times to assist in the solution of technical problems. The possibility of replacing goods now imported by those of Chilean manufacture is never forgotten. Frequently the work of the department extends to agricultural matters, as evidenced by research now being carried on to create a silk industry in Chile, thus relieving the country of imports of such goods, while investigations such as that leading to extension of the production of edible oils, those having to do with combustibles, and so on, indicate how comprehensive and important is the work.

Chilean industry has an important aid in the Institute of Industrial Credit, which makes loans to native industry and industrialists and to foreign enterprises which have been established in the country for more than five years, the loans running from one to five years. The institute may rediscount with the Central Bank of Chile, but all loans must be related to industry.

In addition to the function of making loans, the institute may issue contractors' bonds or those required for other industrial purposes, discount accounts payable, guarantee bonds or debentures which are related to industrial activities or development. Credits, guarantees and other obligations of the institute must be protected in various ways, these consisting of mortgages on real estate, machinery, tools, animals or other elements of industrial operation, raw materials, manufactured goods, warrants, pledges, etc.

The Institute of Industrial Credit is not merely a credit organization. It is constantly active in investigating industrial enterprises, particularly those on which it has made loans. In the latter case balance sheets are always submitted to the institute, suggestions are made, when deemed necessary, which are designed to improve organization or manufacture, and it may be that the institute will take charge of a particular operation when it believes that those in control are not competent. At present a bill is pending in Congress which would amend the organic law creating the institute and extend the scope of operations.

SOCIAL LAWS

In the matter of social legislation Chile is one of the most advanced countries of the world, the first of these laws going back to 1906 when the Law for Workmen's Houses was passed. Other important legislation was that with respect to rest on the Sabbath (1907), that covering labor accidents (1918), that creating the Popular Credit Bank (1920) and so on.

Much of this initial legislation, however, did not prove satisfactory, either because it was in itself inadequate or because it was not enforced. The World War gave new impulse to the movement, and many acts similar to the bills now being discussed in Washington have been on the Chilean statute books for years. Labor contracts, compulsory labor insurance, arbitration, agrarian banks, agricultural cooperatives, laws covering those employed in domestic service, on the farm and on ships, compulsory insurance banks, and many other analogous measures have long since reached practice in Chile.



BANKING AND MONETARY REFORMS IN ARGENTINA

By H. GERALD SMITH,

Chief, Section of Financial Information, Pan American Union

SIX important decrees making radical changes in the financial structure of the country were enacted into law by the Argentine Government in the latter part of March 1935. These decrees, all closely linked and in reality forming a single banking and currency program for the nation, included provisions for the establishment of a Central Bank; a new organic banking law complementary to the entire program; the creation of an institution for the liquidation of frozen banking assets; modifications of the basic law of the Bank of the Argentine Nation; and modifications of the organic law of the National Mortgage Bank. In addition, a final decree created an organizing committee to take charge of all matters relating to the establishment of the Central Bank and of the institution for the liquidation of bank assets.

The banking and monetary reform program instituted by these decrees has been under consideration in Argentina for some years. The recommendations of Sir Otto Niemeyer, a British financial expert, in 1932, were followed in many particulars in the creation of the present program. It had been realized for a number of years in Argentina that certain reforms were needed in the banking structure of the country. The monetary system of the Republic was constituted in such a way as to render it very sensitive to external conditions, over which the country could have but little control, and a system was required to make the national economy less subject to such conditions. This phenomenon was particularly noted in the communication transmitted by the Administration to Congress at the time the present legislation was introduced:

As an agrarian country, we are exposed to violent fluctuations in our exports. A crop failure may at any time render it necessary to export substantial amounts of gold, which tend to return when production improves or with any favorable turn in the domestic and foreign financial situation. It is the function of gold to come and go. But if, on the departure of gold, there has to be an equivalent decrease in notes, and if the banks have suddenly and violently to restrict their credits as happens under an automatic monetary régime, when the banking system does not have at its disposal heavy liquid reserves, new and serious difficulties are added to those already caused by the crop failures. This characteristic of ours was clearly observed by Sir Otto Niemeyer. After pointing out

that "the Argentine economic system—on that account—is exposed to much more severe spasms of tension than occur in countries of a more diversified structure", he expressed his doubts as to whether "any country subject to large natural fluctuations in economic activity such as Argentina could endure for long so direct and rigid an automatic linking of the supply of currency with the balance of external payments."

By the introduction of a more flexible monetary system, therefore, and centralization of the financial strength of the country in a Central Bank, it was believed Argentina would be in a better position to withstand the year to year fluctuations in an agrarian country dependent to an important degree upon world conditions.

To strengthen the banking position of the Republic further and to make it more liquid, the present legislation provides for the establishment of an institution for the gradual liquidation of frozen bank assets. While Argentina has gone through the depression of the last few years with but one minor bank failure, nevertheless a considerable amount of bank assets has become frozen, a condition which has naturally had an adverse effect upon the general banking situation. It was felt that the creation of an institution to take over and gradually liquidate or temporarily administer such assets, would be beneficial to the entire banking structure.

In addition, the present legislation aims at coordinating the entire program, through the creation of an organic banking law to fit into the new scheme, and through such changes in the basic structure of the Bank of the Argentine Nation and the National Mortgage Bank as may be necessary for harmony in the new general plan. Finally, an organizing committee is created to act as a coordinating entity in bringing the entire program into successful operation.

A summary of the most important provisions of the six related banking decrees is given below:

THE CENTRAL BANK OF THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC

The Central Bank of the Argentine Republic, whose main office will be in Buenos Aires, is established for a period of forty years. It has the following purposes:

(a) To concentrate sufficient reserves to moderate the consequences of fluctuations in exports and investments of foreign capital on currency, credit and commercial activity, in order to maintain the value of the currency.

(b) To regulate the volume of credit and the means of payment, adapting them to the real volume of trade.

(c) To promote the liquidity and sound functioning of bank credit; and to apply the provisions for inspection, control, and management of banks as established in the banking law.

(d) To act as financial agent and counsellor of the Government in foreign and internal credit operations, in the issue and service of public loans.

The capital of the bank is fixed at 30 million pesos, divided into 30,000 shares of 1,000 pesos each. The shares, which are nominal and registered in the Central Bank, may be transferred only with the consent of the bank. Of the total capitalization, the national Government subscribes ten million pesos; the national and foreign banks in Argentina with a capital of not less than one million pesos, subscribe at par for a number of shares in proportion to their paid-in capital, up to a total of ten million pesos for all the banks; and no bank, institution or individual may be a shareholder in an amount exceeding one-fifth of the total capital subscribed by the banks. The remaining ten million pesos of the authorized capital of the Central Bank are to be held by the bank for future subscription by banks which may be established in Argentina later with a capital of at least one million pesos, or by existing banks the capital of which may be increased to more than one million pesos. Should such additional absorption of shares in the future utilize the additional ten million pesos mentioned, the Central Bank is authorized to increase its capital, or the national Government may sell a portion of its shares in the bank for such a purpose. The shares of the bank are not to be pledged for loans or other uses, except in special circumstances, and then only with the written consent of the Central Bank.

The formal organization of the Central Bank took place on April 24, 1935, under the auspices of the Minister of Finance, when the board of directors of twelve members was selected. The president and vice president of the bank are to be appointed by the national Government. The central bank law provides that the president and vice president shall be Argentine citizens, hold office for seven years and be eligible for re-election, devote their full time to the work of the bank, and hold no other positions of any nature. Their salaries shall depend in no way upon the earnings of the bank. Members of the board of directors of the bank, who hold office for three years, consist of one representative of the national Government; one of the Bank of the Argentine Nation; six representatives of various banking interests; and four representatives of agriculture, the livestock industry, general business, and manufacturing. The functions of the board are those usually associated with the general management of a banking institution.

Rediscount committees are established by the Central Bank law for the head office in Buenos Aires and if necessary for any of the branches that may be established throughout the country. These committees are to scrutinize all documents offered to the bank for rediscount, purchase or advances.

Detailed regulations are set forth in the law regarding the operations in which the bank may or may not engage. Included in the operations which the bank may undertake, under conditions stipulated by the board of directors, are the following: Issuance of notes in accordance with the provisions of the Central Bank law; purchase and sale of gold; acceptance of money on deposit or current account without payment of interest; rediscount for member or non-member banks of commercial paper representing *bona fide* merchandise transactions which bear at least two good signatures, one of which should be that of a bank, and mature within at least 90 days; and purchase of such paper. Commercial paper fulfilling the above conditions and bearing three or more good signatures is to be rediscounted at a lower rate than that bearing only two signatures. Further rediscounting operations of the Central Bank for member or non-member institutions may be made in the case of documents arising from operations in the production, elaboration or sale of agrarian and livestock or industrial products. These operations are subject to the conditions stipulated for paper representing merchandise transactions, except that such paper may extend for not more than 180 days. Ninety-day paper in this category may be rediscounted at a lower rate than the 180-day documents, provided it bears at least three good signatures, including that of a bank.

The Central Bank may grant advances to member institutions for a fixed period of not over 90 days, at a minimum rate of interest at least one percent above the bank's official rediscount rate for 90-day sight documents, against the following securities: (1) Bills of exchange and promissory notes up to 80 percent of their face value, under the conditions for rediscount set forth above; and (2) securities of the national Government quoted on the market up to 80 percent of their quotation on the stock exchange. The amount of such securities which the bank may accept, however, is definitely limited, in order that the bank may not become overburdened with government paper.

Other operations of the Central Bank may include extending advances on gold bullion or coin up to 95 percent of its value; and the purchase and sale of foreign currency or exchange. Further, the bank may act as correspondent or agent for other Central Banks, or for the Bank of International Settlements, or with any other organization which may be established for international financial cooperation; may issue, purchase and sell securities of the national Government for the exclusive account of the latter, without obligation to subscribe to such securities or guarantee their sale; may administer the clearing house system of Buenos Aires and other Argentine cities; and may trade in the consolidated bonds of the national treasury, under certain conditions.

In addition to the functions which the Central Bank is expressly permitted by law to perform, there are also specified operations in which it is not allowed to engage. These include: The issuance of notes or other currency in denominations of five pesos or less; the uncontrolled granting of financial accommodation to the national Government, by means of discounts, advances, overdrafts, purchase of treasury bills, bonds or other national Government securities, or otherwise. This clause, however, does not prevent the Central Bank from granting advances to member banks on securities of the national Government as outlined previously; nor from purchasing national securities in an amount not in excess of the bank's capital, reserves and the amortized amount of the consolidated bonds of the national Treasury received or purchased by the bank; nor from rediscounting documents of banking, commercial, industrial or public service enterprises pertaining partially or wholly to the Republic, always provided the documents meet the requirements for ordinary business paper, and that such enterprises have a financial basis independent of that of the Republic.

Further operations in which the Central Bank may not engage include the direct or indirect granting of financial accommodation to the provinces, to municipalities, or to autonomous entities connected with them, under the same conditions as advances to the national Government are restricted; the guaranteeing or endorsing of bills or other obligations of the national, provincial or municipal governments, or autonomous entities connected with them; engaging in trade or otherwise having a direct interest in any commercial, agricultural, industrial or other undertaking; the purchasing of shares (except those of the bank itself, the Bank of International Settlements or other entity established for international financial cooperation) or the granting of loans against the security of shares of any kind; the making of unsecured advances or the allowing of overdrafts, except in cases of reciprocal credit arrangements with other central banks; the purchase of real estate except that necessary for the bank itself; and the purchase of goods or the making of advances on the security of real estate or mortgages. To protect its claims, the bank may secure itself on real property, but this is to be sold as soon as practicable. A final prohibited operation for the Central Bank is allowing a renewal or substitution of maturing bills of exchange or promissory notes purchased or rediscounted by or pledged to the bank, except in unusual circumstances when the board of directors may authorize one renewal or substitution for a period not to exceed 90 days.

The Central Bank is to have the sole right to issue notes in Argentina, with the exception of subsidiary currency mentioned above, in denominations of five pesos or less, under the control of the national

Government. No notes or documents which might pass as notes may be issued by any other entity, governmental or otherwise, in Argentina. Notes of the Conversion Office in excess of five pesos in value at present in circulation are to be withdrawn and replaced by Central Bank notes.

Future issues of subsidiary money in denominations of five pesos or less by the national Government are to be made only at the request of the Central Bank, as demanded by public requirements, but in no case is the circulation of such money to exceed 20 pesos for each inhabitant of the country.

In the words of the law, the reserve ratio of the Central Bank is to be maintained at a point sufficient to "assure the external value of the peso, either in gold, currency or foreign exchange, equivalent to a minimum of 25 percent of its circulating notes and sight liabilities. The gold and foreign currencies or exchange are to be unpledged, and in the unrestricted ownership of the bank; and of the foreign currencies or exchange there is to be included only the net balance, that is, the free balance after all liabilities in gold and foreign currency and exchange have been deducted." To protect the reserve ratio, the Central Bank law stipulates that should this reserve during any financial year fall below 33 percent in relation to the notes and sight liabilities, for 60 consecutive days, or over a total period of 90 days, no dividends are to be paid to member banks, and the profits are to be allocated to the general reserve fund. Foreign currency or exchange holdings of the Central Bank are not to exceed 20 percent of its reserves, and may not be calculated at more than 10 percent of the reserves.

The stipulation that the Central Bank is to exchange its notes for gold upon demand is for the present held in abeyance. After the establishment of the Central Bank, Argentina will thus continue to remain off the gold standard.

As mentioned later in the section of this survey discussing the Organic Banking Law, all banks operating in Argentina, both national and foreign, with a capital of not less than one million pesos, are to be members of the Central Bank system. These banks are to maintain in the Central Bank, on the basis of their deposits, two-thirds of their minimum cash reserves. These sums are to form the basis of the clearing system, which is to be administered by the Central Bank in Buenos Aires and other cities.

The Central Bank law established various provisions governing the relations between the bank and the national Government. Among these are the following: The national Government is to entrust the Central Bank with all its remittances, exchange and banking transactions both in Argentina and abroad, as well as with its general deposits. The Bank of the Argentine Nation is to continue to receive

judicial deposits, however, though the President of the Republic is to issue a ruling on this question, and also on the deposits of autonomous government entities and guarantee deposits covering public bids.

The Central Bank is authorized to make temporary advances to the national Government to cover temporary revenue deficits, in an amount not in excess of 10 percent of the average cash revenues of the Government during the three preceding years. Unless such advances are repaid within the year in which they have been made, the Bank is not to make any further advances until they have been repaid. The national Government is to pay interest on such advances at a rate not exceeding the current minimum rediscount rate of the Central Bank.

Further national Government-Central Bank regulations stipulate that the bank is to receive and disburse without charge Government funds (on which no interest is to be paid); that the Bank of the Argentine Nation may be designated, in places in which there is no branch of the Central Bank, to handle such government funds; and that the properties, operations and dividends of the Central Bank are to be free of all national, provincial or municipal government taxes.

Regarding the profits of the Central Bank, the law provides that after due allowance for bad and doubtful debts and depreciation in assets has been made, 20 percent of the net profits are to be credited to the general reserve funds, until such funds amount to 25 percent of the subscribed capital of the bank. Thereafter and until the reserve fund equals the amount of the subscribed capital, 10 percent of the net profits are to be credited to the fund. Of the balance of the profits (subject to the provision mentioned above that no dividends are to be paid if the reserve ratio falls below 33 percent) the member banks are to receive a dividend not exceeding 5 percent per annum. Of any balance still remaining, 10 percent is to be further credited to the reserve fund, and the remainder credited to the national Government.

Finally, provisions are set forth in the law covering the publication of the accounts of the Central Bank, and various regulations of a transitory nature covering the initial stages of the bank's operations.

ORGANIC BANKING LAW

Until the adoption of the present legislation, banking in Argentina had not been governed by any special laws. Banking institutions had been subject primarily only to the general Commercial Code, applicable to all types of business establishments. With the creation of the Central Bank the time was propitious, in the opinion of the Ministry of Finance, for the enactment of an organic banking law.

This banking law provides that no bank (except official banks of Provinces), may come into existence without the authorization of the President of the Republic, who may only grant such authoriza-

tion after consultation with the Central Bank, and if he is assured that all legal requirements have been fulfilled. The Central Bank, it may be mentioned here, is the entity which is to have direct control over all banks in the country; it is invested with authority to inspect, control and examine banking institutions.

Under the provisions of this law, national banks or branches of foreign banks established in Argentina must maintain in the country a cash balance equal to at least 16 percent of their sight deposits, and 8 percent of their time deposits. Banks with a capital of not less than one million pesos must keep at least two-thirds of this in sight deposits in the Central Bank, and the balance, up to the completion of the established minimum cash holdings, must consist of money, in either notes or coin. The Central Bank may temporarily, under special circumstances, exempt any bank from the obligation of the minimum cash holdings mentioned above, but during such period of exemption, the bank may not distribute profits. If within two years the bank concerned has not complied with the minimum cash holdings provision, or advanced a plan satisfactory to the Central Bank for so doing, it is to be liquidated.

While no definite provisions are set forth in the Organic Banking law regarding operations specifically permitted to banks, definite regulations are established concerning prohibited operations. These cover principally bank holdings of real estate, and shares in business enterprises. It is the purpose of the banking law to have banks liquidate within a maximum period of four years all real estate holdings (except bank properties), as well as any participation in business or other non-banking enterprises. Also, banks are not to enter such fields in the future.

The provisions of the banking law concerning deposits define sight deposits as liabilities payable within 30 days or subject to less than 30 days notice before payment; time deposits as all liabilities, including savings deposits, payable after 30 days or subject to not less than 30 days notice before payment. On sight deposits, interest paid by banks must be at least three points less than the minimum rediscount rate of the Central Bank; on time deposits, at least one point less than the rediscount rate.

Interest is not to be paid on savings deposits in excess of 20,000 pesos per person; but in the case of cooperatives or mutual benefit societies, interest may be paid on amounts up to 50,000 pesos. Savings deposits may not be accepted by banks with the obligation of payment without at least 30 days notice.

An interesting clause in the regulations concerning deposits is to the effect that in the liquidation of a bank, savings deposits up to 5,000 pesos are to have preference over the general assets of the bank, after other classes of preferred credits as set forth in the Commercial

Code and the Bankruptcy Law. Cooperatives and mutual benefit societies have a similar privilege on deposits up to 10,000 pesos.

In the organic banking law various provisions, which need not be detailed here, are set forth concerning the periodical statements which the banking institutions of the country must present to the Central Bank; the procedure whereby the banks must permit access to their accounts by Central Bank inspectors; and the conditions under which the Central Bank may bring about the liquidation of a bank where circumstances require such action.

Banks receiving deposits and dealing in mortgages are to keep the latter operations in special accounts, which are to be subject to Central Bank inspection, but the provisions for inspection by the central institution do not apply to banks dealing in mortgages but not receiving deposits. Finally, the organic Banking Law provides that banks are to apply annually at least 10 percent of their net profits to the establishment of a reserve fund, until such time as it represents a minimum of 50 percent of their paid-in capital, and until the capital and reserves together represent 33 percent of the savings deposits.

INSTITUTION FOR THE LIQUIDATION OF FROZEN BANK ASSETS

An important part of the banking legislation program provides for the establishment of an institution for the liquidation of frozen bank assets. In the words of this law, this entity is to "acquire real estate, credits and other frozen investments of the banks, and sell them, gradually and progressively, aiming at their allocation to families of agriculturists in the form of land, valued according to its effective yield, and also the transfer of other investments to those who can make them more profitable." This institution, which is to have its headquarters in Buenos Aires, is to have a capital of ten million pesos, subscribed by the national Government, and a reserve fund composed of the proceeds of the bonds issued by the liquidating institution, and of certain other funds accruing to the national Government as a result of the present reorganization of the country's banking structure.

In its actual operations, the liquidating entity is to pay for the frozen assets purchased from the banks, partly in cash and partly in amortizable bonds issued under the authorization of the President of the Republic. These bonds cannot be rediscounted by the banks and their amortization is to take place as the liquidating institution gradually disposes of the assets represented by them.

It is one of the essential purposes of this institution to dispose of, and not to administer indefinitely, the assets purchased from the banks. Properties acquired are to be sold through public or private auction, in order to insure free competition, and to obtain the best possible prices. Regarding general credits, the institution is to

exhaust every possible legal means to effect collections, failing which, special arrangements or extra-judicial agreements may be authorized to facilitate the most satisfactory possible collection of the amounts outstanding. The liquidating entity thus is designed not merely to cancel the frozen debts owed to the banks, but rather by separating them from the remainder, to effect a greater degree of liquidity in the entire banking structure of the country, with resulting benefits to the whole national economy.

In the administration of the frozen assets, the institution is to cooperate closely with the banks of the country, both those in which the assets had been frozen, and others, except in special cases. Regarding the proceeds obtained by the liquidation of the frozen assets, these "shall be applied to the payment of interest and amortization of the amortizable bonds, after setting aside the sum necessary to cover the expenses of the institution. Each bank holding amortizable bonds, shall receive an amount corresponding to what has been obtained by the administration or sale of the properties originally purchased from it. This method has obvious advantages over that of refunding the proceeds of all the properties acquired, in a common lump sum, as has been practised in other countries."

Finally, it may be mentioned that the liquidating institution is to cooperate closely with the national Government, and with the National Mortgage Bank,—with the former chiefly through utilizing technical experts already in the employ of the Government, and with the latter by the following methods: "The National Mortgage Bank shall be authorized to grant loans to the liquidating institution on properties acquired, in order to facilitate their sale to third parties; or to make prior arrangements with the institution for the realization of such loans after the properties have been sold to third parties. In the case of properties suitable for colonization, the institution, with the advice of the Ministry of Agriculture, may arrange with the National Mortgage Bank for the granting of colonization loans. The liquidating institution shall be authorized to receive from third parties mortgage bonds in payments of credits, or for the purchase of properties, or to receive from the purchasers such mortgage bonds in guarantee of payment for the properties purchased."

MODIFICATIONS IN THE BASIC LAW OF THE BANK OF THE ARGENTINE NATION

The fundamental modifications made in the basic law of the Bank of the Argentine Nation are two. They concern the membership of the board of directors of the bank and the amount of financial accommodation which the bank is permitted to grant to the national, provincial or municipal governments.

By the new legislation, the membership on the board of directors of the bank is increased from six to eight. Of this number, four are to be appointed directly by the President of the Republic, subject to the approval of the Senate. The remaining four members are to be elected, subject to Senate approval, from the list of candidates proposed by the following groups representing various national interests: The Buenos Aires Stock Exchange, Argentine Industrial Union, Argentine Rural Society and other rural societies, and the Stock Exchange of Rosario and other stock exchanges. Each one of these organizations shall submit the names of four candidates, but this number shall be reduced to three, if the President should decide that greater representation should be given to other agricultural interests. The President will thus have a list of candidates from which to fill the four remaining positions on the directorate. He is not restricted in his choice to selecting members from each of the groups proposing candidates.

The other important modification in the Bank of the Argentine Nation concerns its financial relationship with the Government. By the new legislation the bank is not permitted to grant loans to the national Government in an amount exceeding 15 percent of the bank's capital and reserves, nor lend to the provincial or municipal governments, directly nor indirectly, either in the form of discounts, advances, open credits, purchase of bills, bonds or other securities, or as advances to third parties with the guarantee of such bills, bonds or securities, or in any other form. These provisions go into effect simultaneously with the opening of the Central Bank, but do not affect operations already in effect. The foregoing provisions, however, do not prevent the Bank of the Argentine Nation from making advances against national, provincial or municipal government bonds quoted on the Buenos Aires Stock Exchange, or against national cedulas, provided it is not a case of operations intended to finance the first sale of such securities in order to supply funds, directly or indirectly, to the national Government. In addition, such advances are limited to amounts not in excess of 20 percent of the capital and reserves of the bank. A final controlling modification provides that except by a two-thirds vote of the directors, the bank may not lend over 500,000 pesos to a single firm, or lend joint-stock companies sums in excess of 50 percent of their capital.

MODIFICATIONS IN THE ORGANIC LAW OF THE NATIONAL MORTGAGE BANK

The same general provisions affecting the membership of the board of directors of the Bank of the Argentine Nation are to be applied to the formation of the board of the National Mortgage Bank, with the

addition that the Corporation of Share and Bondholders and other trade entities are included among those who may submit the names of candidates for places on the board.

Regarding the membership on the boards of directors of both the National Mortgage Bank and the Bank of the Argentine Nation, the project of the Administration introducing the banking legislation into Congress stated: "Commerce, industry and production will thus participate directly in the management of these great State financial institutions, giving them the benefit of their practical experience, derived from continuous contact with the true state of the country's economic life. Much can be expected from this cooperation, which the representative entities will no doubt render with a high sense of responsibility."

LAW OF ORGANIZATION

A general measure, which provides the procedure and machinery for placing the banking legislation in effect, is found in the final decree of the series being considered here. Under this law of organization, the President of the Republic is to appoint an organization committee of four members, headed by the Minister of Finance, which is to take charge of all matters concerning the organization of the Central Bank, and of the institution for the liquidation of frozen bank assets. In addition, the committee is to propose to the President the regulations, statutes and by-laws for a full observance of the new banking program.

The President of the Republic, with the consent of the Senate, is to appoint the first president and vice president of the Central Bank. The organization committee is to decide upon the details of participation in the bank by the various national and foreign banks which are to become share-holders.

In bringing the Central Bank into full working effect, the President of the Republic is authorized to suppress the existing Rediscount Committee, the Autonomous Amortization Board and the Conversion Office. The assets and liabilities of the Conversion Office are to be transferred to the Central Bank, along with the government deposits in the Bank of the Argentine Nation. From the latter deposits are to be excepted those of the autonomous governmental entities and the deposits in guarantee of bids made for work on various government enterprises. This excepted group of deposits is to include the profits accruing to the Government from operations in foreign exchange, and the foreign currency fund, in view of their special character.

Prior to making the above-mentioned transfers to the Central Bank, the Government is to deduct subsidiary money in denominations of five pesos or less, which are to be controlled by the government, along with the coinage and future issues of such subsidiary currency.

After the transfers to the Central Bank, the balance of the Conversion Office's credit against the national Government for various note issues (after the deduction of the amount of the subsidiary notes), will be represented in the Central Bank by a non-interest bearing bond issued by the national treasury.

The President of the Republic is authorized, after consultation with the organizing committee, to fund into national treasury three percent consolidated bonds, with one-quarter percent cumulative amortization, up to a total of 400 million pesos, the balance of the credit against collateral of patriotic loan bonds and treasury notes at present in circulation. The consolidated bonds are to be purchased at par by the Central Bank, and may be sold by the bank to, or purchased from, other banking institutions. It was pointed out in the explanatory memorandum introducing the present legislation in Congress, that "the bank will thus have a working fund of 400 million pesos worth of bonds for inter-bank operations. It is probable that a part of these bonds will, owing to the present shortage of commercial investment opportunities, be re-purchased by the banks, which will be able to negotiate them in due course in the Central Bank as and when they require funds."

There being no further necessity, after the establishment of the Central Bank, of maintaining a separate conversion fund in the Bank of the Argentine Nation, this fund is to be cancelled, the proceeds to be applied to the liquidation of the floating debt of the national Government. Furthermore, the President of the Republic is authorized to negotiate with the Bank of the Argentine Nation for a definitive settlement of the national Government's direct and indirect indebtedness to that bank, after the provisions of the law regarding the floating debt have been fulfilled. The national Government is to issue securities to the Bank of the Argentine Nation to cover that debt.

Immediately following its establishment, the institution for the liquidation of frozen bank assets is to proceed to examine the documents offered for sale to it by the various banks concerned, in order to propose to the organization committee terms for the purchase of such assets, as well as a general program for their liquidation. When the foregoing preliminary steps have been taken, and the twenty million pesos required for the national Government's participation in the capital stock of the Central Bank and the liquidating institution have been allocated, the organization committee, with the approval of the President of the Republic, is to decide upon the amount of the reserve fund of the liquidating institution. This sum may be invested, the same as the capital funds, in Government securities or in consolidated bonds of the national treasury. Any surplus funds available to the liquidating institution beyond its

capital and reserve requirements are to be transferred to the national Government to be used solely for the cancellation of bank debts of the Government.

To centralize the basic monetary functions relating to international transactions in the Central Bank, and thus allow that institution to fulfill one of its primary purposes—such control of the foreign exchange situation as will prevent violent fluctuations detrimental to the entire national economy—the Law of Organization provides that control of exchange operations is to be placed in the hands of the Central Bank. This is considered particularly important as long as governmental control of foreign exchange dealings continues in Argentina—that is, until there may be a return to a free exchange market. As long as there is exchange control, however, the Central Bank's operations in the market are to be in conformity with the existing system of prior exchange permits, whereby importers, in order to obtain exchange at the official rate upon a later date when the merchandise ordered is actually received, must have their orders for such merchandise approved. This system tends, by controlling in advance the amount of imports for which payments will be allowed at the official rate, to prevent large accumulations of demands for foreign exchange, or a large amount of frozen credits on account of lack of sufficient foreign exchange with which to liquidate them. Under the system of exchange control in effect in Argentina for more than a year, a gross profit resulted from exchange operations of nearly one hundred million pesos. To this sum (referred to above), which is the Exchange Profits Fund, to be held in a special account in the Central Bank, are to be credited future differences (profits) between the rates of purchase and sale of foreign currencies. Against this sum are to be debited: the differences (losses) on exchange utilized for public debt service abroad and other foreign remittances of the National Government, and the general expenses of the Exchange Control Board; the differences (losses) between the purchase and sale values of grain passing through the hands of the Grain Control Board,¹ and the general expenses of the Board; and the losses which may accrue from operations by organizations established by the President of the Republic to deal in commodities other than those handled by the Grain Control Board.

An important provision of the Law of Organization which by the foreign exchange control and recent commercial treaty system of Argentina will affect adversely those nations with which Argentina does not have a favorable trade balance is the following: "There

¹ The Grain Control Board was established to purchase grain from producers at fixed minimum prices, the grain then to be sold to exporters at the world price. Any losses sustained by the Board from such operations were to be covered from profits from the government's dealings in the foreign exchange market.

will also be added to this fund [the foreign currencies fund of the national Government] the surcharge of anything up to 20 percent (including for purposes of calculation the difference between the official and free exchange rates) on the sum of foreign currency corresponding to the value of imports without prior permits, which must be paid for in foreign exchange or currencies to authorized banks before the goods can be cleared through the customs, in accordance with the rulings of the President of the Republic, and for the duration of the system of prior exchange permits." To understand this provision it should be noted that the Argentine foreign exchange policy is to grant prior exchange permits primarily for goods coming from countries whose imports of Argentine commodities are sufficient to permit an adequate supply of the respective foreign exchange to be made available to cover imports into Argentina from such countries. Thus the lack of certain foreign currencies will cause the Exchange Control Board to deny prior exchange permits to cover payment of imported merchandise in such currencies. To obtain the required foreign currencies, therefore, importers must pay the additional surcharge, up to 20 percent mentioned above.

Finally, the Law of Organization provides for the establishment of a temporary currency committee, composed of government officials and business men, the functions of which body are: "To propose to the Ministry of Finance the procedure for the granting and application of prior exchange permits by the Exchange Control Board and to see that the established conditions are duly complied with by that Ministry; and to study claims presented by importers to the Exchange Control Board and to advise the Ministry of Finance thereon."



THE THIRD CENTRAL AMERICAN AND CARIBBEAN OLYMPIC GAMES

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THE Third Central American and Caribbean Olympic Games were originally to start last December in the city of San Salvador. The large stadium was under construction and everything was being made ready to welcome athletes and visitors when, in the month of June, 1934, the Republic of El Salvador was struck by the worst hurricane in her history, causing devastation and ruin throughout the country. Not a road or trail remained; extensive tracts of land were laid waste, and the havoc was really awe-inspiring. The stadium, which was three-fourths completed, became a large lake and the surrounding land marshes of mud and water. Consequently, the international games had to be postponed, but upon agreement among the interested countries, they were finally set for the month of March 1935.

Fourteen nations or islands were urged to participate in the Third Central American and Caribbean Olympics, an institution duly recognized by the International Olympic Committee which was represented at San Salvador by Don Pedro de Matheu, as special delegate. Invitations were sent to Colombia, Venezuela, and Panama, among the South American countries; El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica in Central America; Cuba, Puerto Rico, the Dominican Republic, Haiti, and Jamaica in the Caribbean; and to the Republic of Mexico. Of these, for one reason or another, only nine could attend the games, but Colombia sent a special delegate to represent her at the various conferences which were to be held here.

The stadium is an imposing structure set in a natural hollow, with a gorgeous view of the surrounding hills and mountains. It is built of reinforced concrete, along the most modern lines for this type of construction. The swimming pool is close by, and has abundant clean water obtained from a well especially drilled for the purpose. All track and field events, the soccer and baseball games, and the riding competition took place in the stadium, which can easily seat 35,000 people. Tennis was played on the courts of El Salvador Tennis Club, within the Campo de Marte, a delightful park just at the edge of the town. Polo supremacy was competed for in the grounds of El Carmen Polo Club, a lovely plain at the foot of the



Photograph by Aníbal Salazar.

THE NATIONAL STADIUM IN SAN SALVADOR.

The large stadium which was the scene of the Third Central American and Caribbean Olympic Games was formally opened March 1, 1935, with the ceremonies incident to the inauguration of President Maximiliano Hernández Martínez.

imposing cone of the Volcán San Salvador. The golf course of the Country Club teemed with spectators the days on which this interesting game was played. Crowds filled the National Gymnasium to capacity whenever volley ball, basket ball and wrestling contests were held. The Open Air Theater (Cine Popular) was the scene of the boxing matches, while the fencing contestants held forth at the Military School.

March was a month of considerable activity. It began with the inauguration of the recently elected President, General Maximiliano Hernández Martínez, in ceremonies which were held at the stadium, thus offering a splendid opportunity for its official opening. It was a most imposing spectacle carried through with all the formalities of the occasion.

From the first week in March, the various countries began sending their teams to El Salvador. By train, plane, and automobile, the teams poured in for days. The receptions accorded them were most impressive. If they arrived by train, they were met by special delegates at the station where thousands of people would be on hand to cheer them all the way into town. From the airport, the athletes were brought to the city by auto, followed by a long caravan of

vehicles full of people bent on giving them a hearty welcome. Special commissions were kept busy all the time.

The most attractive of these events, however, took place one bright afternoon when the Guatemalan delegates arrived. From the station they paraded in military formation, preceded by their own band, marching into town to greet the President who reviewed them from the balcony of the Palace. The spotless white uniforms with the quetzal emblem and Olympic rings made a splendid showing and the crowds gave the visitors cheer after cheer as they passed by with their arms extended in the Olympic salute.

THE OLYMPIC GAMES START

The great day has arrived. All business houses are closed. And hereafter, during the period of the Olympic games, they will be closed every afternoon so as to give everyone a chance to go the stadium.

A never to be forgotten sight, that of the opening ceremony on the 16th of March. A clear sunny day. The stadium filled to capacity. In the presidential box, a galaxy of distinguished people. With the President, on his right, may be seen Doña María de Sacasa, wife of the President of Nicaragua, who is the nation's guest on this memorable occasion. Then there is the Minister of the Interior of Mexico, Señor Bojórquez, who came by plane, accompanied by Pedro Vargas, the famous singer, and Agustín Lara, a popular composer whose name is a household word throughout Latin America. Señor Ángel Soler, president of the Central American Olympics, is seated next to the delegate of the International Olympic Committee. Newspaper representatives fill a side box.

All is ready. At 5 o'clock sharp, the inaugural ceremony begins, with 30 trumpeters sounding the call. The Olympic delegates are introduced to the President by means of the microphone. Slowly, three flags are hoisted on their respective staffs in front of the presidential box: the colors of El Salvador flanked by the flags of the International Olympics and the Central American Games. The President declares the Third Central American Olympics formally inaugurated and the parade starts from the north side of the stadium. Eight countries march in formation, preceded by their colors and bands of music. Eight countries proudly display their athletes. Only Nicaragua, delayed by unforeseen circumstances, has been unable to get her team here in time for the opening ceremonies. But it will arrive tomorrow.

Each flag bearer advances toward the presidential box and takes the Olympic oath for himself and his comrades. The bands play, the athletes stand at attention, while numerous planes in perfect formation fly back and forth over the stadium. Thousands cheer as each

delegation then passes the stands. Over it all a blue sky, and sunshine which disappears behind the hills before the last ceremonies are ended. In the distance the volcanoes watch silently. School children sing the national anthem as the Olympic teams leave the stadium and everyone agrees that it has been a perfect day.

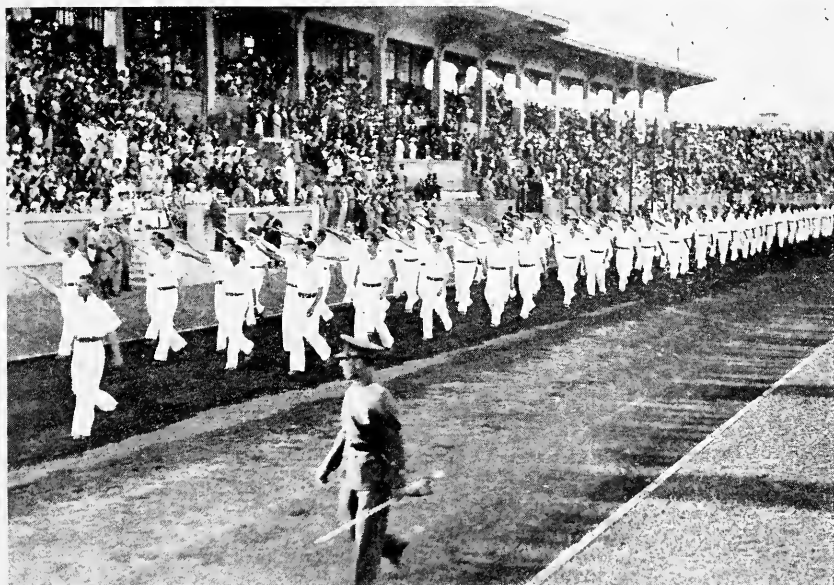
MANY NEW RECORDS ESTABLISHED

From March 18 to April 5 the Olympic events followed each other in rapid succession. Nobody had time for anything else and it was the only subject of conversation. The spectacular 10,000 meter race was easily won by Mexican Indians who ran barefooted over the hot course and came in first, second, and third winners. Many new records were established, the following list being taken from the official reports:

<i>Event</i>	<i>Winner</i>
100 meters.....	Conrado Rodríguez (Cuba), 10.7'' (time).
200 meters.....	Conrado Rodríguez (Cuba), 22.3'' (time).
400 meters.....	Carlos de Anda (Mexico), 40.3'' (time).
1,500 meters.....	Delfino Campos (Mexico), 4'11.9'' (time).
5,000 meters.....	Mariano Ramírez (Mexico), 16'16.4'' (time).
10,000 meters.....	Juan Morales (Mexico), 33'17.5'' (time).
100 meters, high hurdles.....	Roberto Sánchez (Mexico), 15.8'' (time).
400 meter relay race.....	Won by Cuba, 43.3'' (time).
1,600 meter relay race.....	Won by Cuba, 3'22.4'' (time).
Shot put.....	Fernando Torres (Puerto Rico), distance, 12.845 (meters).
Hammer throw.....	F. Robledo (Mexico), 42.520 (meters).
Javelin throw.....	A. Figueroa (Puerto Rico), 59.320 (meters).
Pole vault.....	José Sabater (Puerto Rico), height, 3.698 (meters).
Pentathlon.....	Felipe Orellana (Guatemala), with 3,231.01 (points).
Swimming:	
200 meters, breast stroke..	Oscar Martínez (Cuba), 3'5.5'' (time).
100 meters, back stroke..	Rosendo Rojas (Mexico), 1'15.2'' (time).
1,500 meters, free style---	Raúl del Valle (Cuba), 22'19.9'' (time).
400 meters, free style----	Raúl del Valle (Cuba), 5'23.9'' (time).

The above performances bettered the records established at the first and second Central American meets held in Mexico City and Habana, respectively. In other sports the following results were recorded: Mexico won the championship in the soccer tournament. Baseball honors went to the Cuban team, but Mexico again scored by establishing her supremacy in basket ball. The tennis matches were thrilling, the exceedingly hard competition making the victorious nations justly proud of their players. Cuba won the men's singles and the women's doubles, while the men's doubles, women's singles

and the mixed doubles went to Mexico. El Salvador was victor in pistol shooting, Francisco Parraga Orozco making an excellent showing, and also in the *tiro de pichón*, or trap shooting. In the polo matches, Mexico successfully met the challenge of El Salvador, the only other competing nation. Golf singles and doubles were won by El Salvador, which makes this country the Central American and Caribbean champion in this sport. The local star, Carlos Escobar, played a fine game. The rifle shooting teams acquitted themselves admirably, Mexico taking first place with 308 points, with Puerto Rico a close second, scoring 306 points. Mexico also swept to victory



Photograph by Aníbal Salazar.

PARADE OF THE ATHLETES OF EL SALVADOR.

At the opening of the Olympic games on March 16, 1935, teams from eight countries paraded before the President of the Republic and the crowds in the stadium.

in boxing, volley ball, and horsemanship. In the latter sport Guatemala placed second and El Salvador third. Cuba was the winner of the track and field meet, with 143 points, but Mexico, which was second in these events, carried off the honors of the entire Olympics with the notable athletes on her team.

THE OLYMPICS COME TO AN END

The above takes care of the principal events. It will be seen that Mexico and Cuba were the leaders and waged a hard struggle for first place. Puerto Rico, with comparatively few participants, did nobly

in the various contests. Guatemala made a most spectacular showing. The admirable organization of her large contingent kept perfect discipline all through the games. Her very good band and marimba players were most generous with free concerts in public parks and other places. The rest of the competing countries scored well and did their part throughout the Olympics. Each one bore home at least a couple of medals which President Martínez presented to them on the closing day of the games. This ceremony, which took place on April 5, was not as imposing as the official opening, for many participants had already left for their respective countries.

Once the medals and prizes had been distributed, the Chief Executive went down to the arena of the stadium, accompanied by the



Photograph by Anibal Salazar.

THE CLOSE OF THE THIRD CENTRAL AMERICAN AND CARIBBEAN OLYMPICS.

The flag of El Salvador and the colors of the International Olympics and the Central American games were lowered to mark the close of the Olympics on April 5.

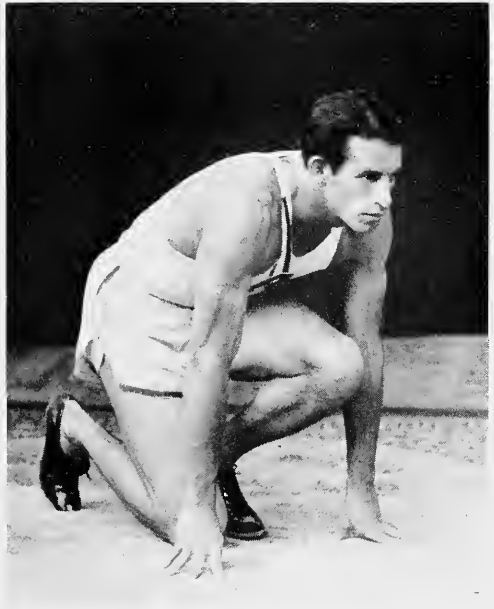
president of the Central American Olympic Committee and the delegate of the International Olympics. President Martínez then lowered the flag of El Salvador as five bands played the national anthem. Following this, the other two officials lowered the flags of their respective organizations; and the delegates of the nations represented in the games, who in the meantime stood beside the staffs from which their own colors waved, pulled them down, one after the other, to the music of their respective anthems. Afterwards, the Central American and Caribbean flag was handed over to the mayor of San Salvador, as prescribed by the rules, and he will, in turn, deliver it to Panama, the country selected as the site of the Fourth Central American and Caribbean Olympics to be held in 1938.

And so have ended the much talked about Olympics. El Salvador merits more than a brief word of praise for carrying out her pledge to hold these international games. It entailed considerable financial and physical sacrifices, not only in getting everything ready for the games but also in providing adequate housing accommodations for the athletes and the large number of visitors who stayed here during the three weeks of the great sports carnival. That they were successfully carried to a brilliant finish is due to the combined efforts of the Salvadorean people, and especially to those of President Maximiliano Hernández Martínez, who spared no pains in righting things after the destructive storm of June 1934.

The Olympic games have left in their wake a splendid lesson for the youth of the country, teaching them the value of good sportsmanship and clean living in striving for victory against their rivals in the field of sports, and the fact that class distinction has no bearing at all on sportsmanship. Education, on the other hand, will help the sportsman to win or lose in the right manner.

CONRADO RODRÍGUEZ.

This Cuban athlete, an outstanding figure in the Olympics, won both the 100- and 200-meter races.



Photograph by Aníbal Salazar.

RARE BOOKS IN THE OLIVEIRA LIMA LIBRARY

By PAUL A. McNEIL

Librarian

IN looking over some of the rarest books in the wonderful collection of 40,000 volumes made by the late Dr. Manoel de Oliveira Lima (for many years Ambassador of Brazil in the United States) and presented to the Catholic University of America in Washington, one finds many relating to the study of geography.

It may be said that the geographical renaissance began in 1410 with the translation of the geography of Claudius Ptolemy from Greek into Latin. Ptolemy had worked in the Great Library of Alexandria, founded before the death of Soter, 284 B. C., and considered the first library. The scrolls, said to number between 40,000 and 400,000, were preserved until the library was destroyed, probably in 272 A. D. Ptolemy saved the knowledge of the ancients for all time by writing his geography. Although he developed a mathematical system of geography and astronomy which made theorizing possible, his book did not become well known because European geographers were little acquainted with Greek.

The revival of interest in exploration owed its inspiration and leadership to Prince Henry, "the Navigator", of Portugal. The period ushered in a glorious chapter of history. It witnessed the discovery of the sea route to Asia and the building of the Portuguese empire; the discovery of the western route to the New World and the building of the Spanish empire; and the end of the 700 years of conflict between the Moors and the Spaniards, preventing forever the Moorish domination of Spain.

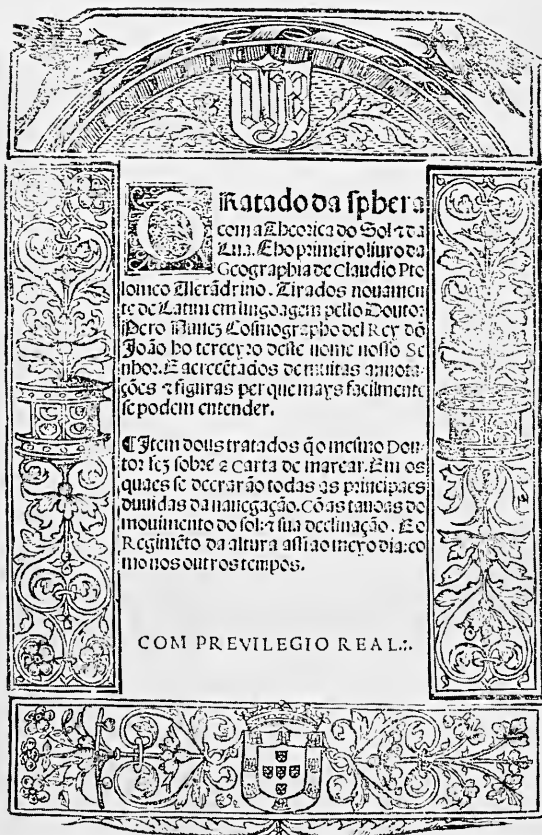
Fifteenth-century scholars were prepared for the theories of Ptolemy by the travels of Marco Polo, an Italian, who with his father and uncle journeyed in the Orient from 1271 to 1295 A. D. When he returned he was not even remembered by friends in Italy. He later fought at the battle of Curzola and was taken prisoner. During that time he told his story to Rustichello of Pisa, who wrote it in the French of that period. This account of his experiences, translated into Italian, is found in the second volume of Ramusio's *Delle Navigazioni et Viaggi*, Venice, 1559, a book which is in the Oliveira Lima Library. So weird and strange were many of Marco Polo's tales that friends begged him to retract some of them before he passed to his eternal punishment.

Polo, who journeyed by land from Italy to Zaitum (probably Canton on the China Sea), was able to assist European scholars to visualize the width of Asia. Having returned by sea from Canton to Ormuz, Persia, he could give an idea of the shape of Asia.

Prince Henry of Portugal was well acquainted with the geography of Claudius Ptolemy and the travels of Marco Polo. In 1420, he wished to determine and chart the length of the west coast of Africa,

TITLE PAGE OF
PTOLEMY'S GEOG-
RAPHY.

Of interest in the Oliveira Lima collection is a facsimile of the first book of geography, translated into Portuguese in 1537 by Pedro Nunez.



Courtesy of the Oliveira Lima Library.

which at that time seemed impossible. Until then the Moslems had controlled the caravan routes to the East and also the secrets and mysteries of the Orient. The close-lipped, hooded Arabs kept much to themselves, but as merchants brought pearls from Ormuz in Persia, silks as fine as spider webs from China, and from India spices, carried by graceful camels, swift Arabian horses or lumbering elephants.

Prince Henry knew that if he could reach the Indies by sea he could wrest this trade from the Moslems. He had heard of a Christian

prince, Prester John, who lived in the East, some thought in India, others in Africa. Stories of this prince had been current since the twelfth century. He was said to possess great wealth and territory extending "to the dawn." With him as an ally, Prince Henry wished to convert the East to Christianity and capture "the wealth of the Indies."

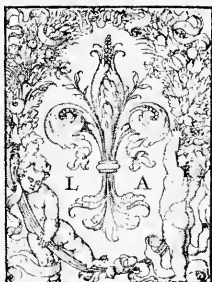
SECONDO VOLVME
DELLE NAVIGATIONI ET VIAGGI
NEL QUALE SI CONTENGONO

L'Historia delle cose de Tartari, & diuersi fatti de loro Imperatori, descrittta da M. Marco Polo Gentiluomo Venetiano, & da Hayton Armeno.

Varie descriptioni di diuersi autori, dell'Indie Orientali, della Tartaria, della Persia, Armenia, Mengrelia, Zorzanza, & altre Prouincie, nelle quali si raccontano molte imprese d'Uffumcaflan, d'Ilmael Soffi, del Soldano di Babilonia, di diuersi Imperatori Ottomani, & particolarmente di Selim, coneto Tomombeï, vltimo Soldano de Mamalucchi, & d'altri Principi.

Et il viaggio della Tana. Con la descriptione de nomi de Popoli, Città, Fiumi, & Porti d'intorno al Mar Maggiore, come si nominauano al tempo dell'Imperator Adriano, & nelle altre navigationi dello sclaro de Moscoui, Sciti, & Circhasi, come d'altre genti barbare a gli antichi incognite. Et il naufragio di M. Pietro Quirino gentiluomo Venetiano, portato per fortuna scianza gradi fuori la Tramentana.

Con l'Indice diligentemente ordinato, delle cose più notabili.



Con Privilegio dell'illustrissimo Senato di Venetia.

IN VENETIA NELLA STAMPERIA DE GIUNTI.

L'ANNO M D LIX.



Courtesy of the Oliveira Lima Library.

TITLE PAGE OF "DELLE NAVIGATIONI ET VIAGGI."

This volume of Ramusio's published in Venice in 1559 contains a translation of the account of the travels of Marco Polo as related by him to Rustichello.

A prince of such power was never found, but later the story of Prester John by Padre Francisco Alvares, 1540, identifies him with a Christian prince, a ruler in Abyssinia. A copy of this interesting book is found in the Oliveira Lima Library, and it has much geographical material of value for a study of that period.

Prince Henry gathered the map makers not only of his own country but of other countries of Europe to plan explorations, which he

financed from 1420 to 1460. He longed for the day that his brave sea captains would return with news of finding the sea route to India. He did not live to see his dream come true, but was pleased by many lesser victories as each new portulan extended the knowledge of the coastline farther into the hitherto unknown. He died in 1460, successful as a distinguished navigator, and very wealthy.

Finally, in 1488, Bartholomew Diaz rounded the Cape of Storms, later named the Cape of Good Hope by King Manoel, "the Fortunate." This accomplishment was a turning point in history, for a few years later, in 1498, it enabled Vasco da Gama to reach Calicut, India.

This period produced Portugal's greatest poet, Luis de Camões, who wrote the epic of Vasco da Gama in the *Lusiades*. The Oliveira Lima Library has several editions of this poem, including a copy of the fourth edition (Lisbon, 1597), and translations into English and French. Camões well described his age when he wrote: "Each year came and went the fleet to the Indies, went with adventurers, and soldiers of the King, draining the country of its best men, returning laden with spices and gold and precious stones from the Indies."

The story of the spices, herbs, and plants of India was first introduced to the people of Europe by the book of Dr. Garcia da Orta. The rare edition of 1563 is in the library. Although this book has a value to scientists, even today a complete translation into English has not been made.

But five years before Vasco da Gama discovered unknown parts of the Old World, Christopher Columbus, who had devised new theories from the work of Ptolemy, had pleaded with John II of Portugal to outfit him so that he could set sail for the Indies via a western route. Denied by Portugal, he sailed under the flag of Spain, and discovered the New World.

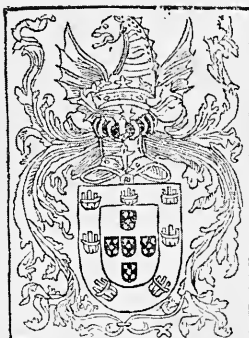
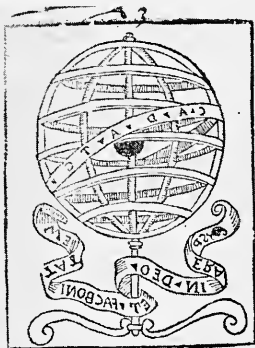
Besides the men of vision who labored patiently from 1490 to 1498 to conquer the difficulties of a voyage around Africa, Portugal had produced and encouraged scientists well versed in mathematics, astronomy, map making, and geography as well as successful ship builders and courageous captains, willing and able to chart unknown seas. Among these were Bartholomew Dias, Vasco da Gama, and Pedro Alvares Cabral.

Hence the geographical renaissance which crystallized in Portugal really made possible in the fifteenth century the discovery of both the Old and the New World.

The Viscount of Santarem, the great Portuguese geographer of the nineteenth century, remarks in his *Recherches . . . sur Améric Vespuce*, printed in Paris, that it was indeed unfortunate that the great honor of discovering America had not gone to Portugal. However, it was not strange that King John's advisers refused the assistance of an

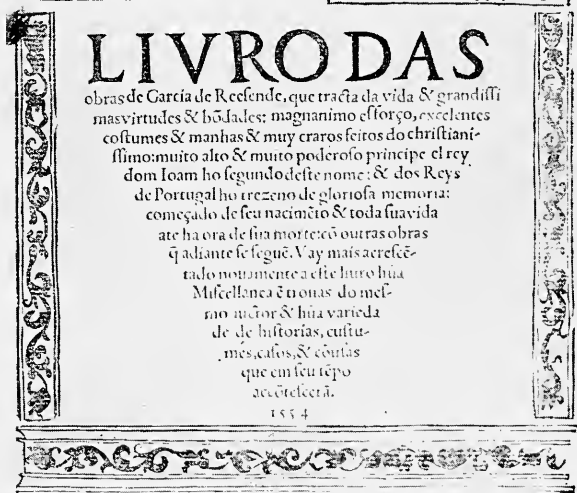
unknown Italian navigator, especially when it seemed possible to find the sea route to the Indies via the East within a short time.

Columbus, having gained the assistance of Queen Isabella of Spain and of the Pinzón family, discovered in 1492 the islands of San Salvador, Cuba and Haiti. He felt that he had discovered the Indies. To prove this, he brought back to Europe some gold and several natives whom he called Indians, the name by which they have been known ever since. On his return to Spain, adverse winds drove him



THE "OBRAS" OF GARCIA DE REZENDE.

The unusual title page of this volume is printed in red and black within a scroll border. Two wood cuts, the armillary sphere which was the emblem of Dom Manoel I, and the royal coat-of-arms of Portugal, embellish the upper portion of the page.



Courtesy of the Oliveira Lima Library.

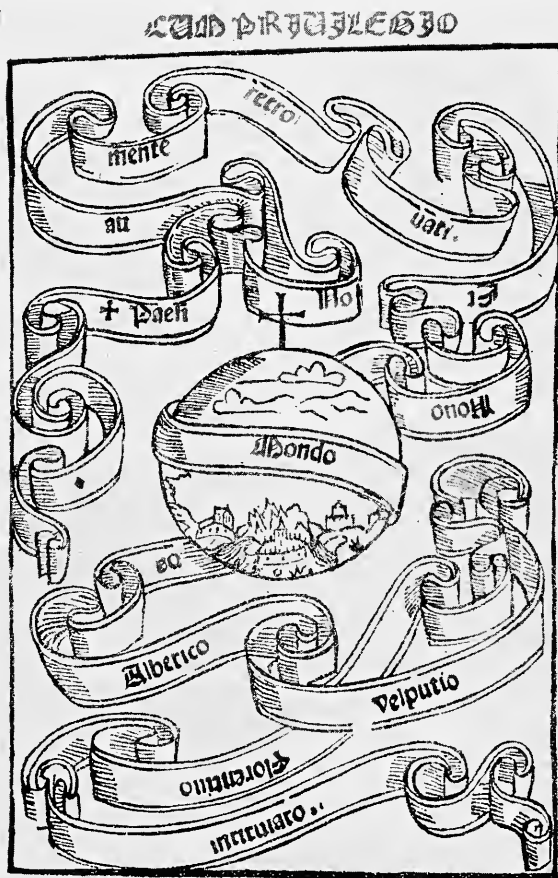
to the port of Lisbon, where storms forced him to take refuge. When the Portuguese learned of his voyage and saw his proof, they thought that he had really trespassed on their claims. This story is told in the *Obras* of Garcia de Rezende, Lisbon, 1554, a copy of which the Oliveira Lima Library possesses.

Advisers to the King wished to have Columbus killed in the streets of Lisbon. However, the King refused to do this, and entertained the explorer as a royal guest. On his departure, the Portuguese

prepared for war against the Spanish. When the latter heard of these preparations, King Ferdinand asked the Portuguese to wait and determine exactly where the land was located and settle the problem by the laws of equity. Ambassadors were immediately sent. The problem was settled later by an agreement, which might be cited as the first boundary settlement by amicable means relative

"PAESI NOVAMENTI
RETROUATI ET
NOVO MONDO DA
ALBERICO VESPU-
TIO FLORENTINO
INTITULATO."

This volume, published in 1507, and incidentally the oldest in the Oliveira Lima Library, describes the voyages of all the important explorers of that period whose discoveries and explorations so vitally changed world history.



to the New World, where this peaceful practice has flourished more than anywhere else.

One of the best books to describe concisely the results of the geographical renaissance is the volume entitled *Paesi Novamente Retrouati Et Novo Mondo da Alberico Vesputio Florentino intitulato*, compiled by the distinguished professor Francisco Montalbo and written in Italian in Vicenza, in 1507, one year after the death of Christopher Columbus.

This book of only 338 pages is the first collection describing voyages and emphasizing the results of the geographical renaissance. It contains a galaxy of names of the men who by their explorations and discoveries changed the history of the world. Among the most important of the explorers described by Professor Montalbodo are:

Cada Mosto, who discovered the Cape Verde Islands off the coast of Africa, the first major discovery west of the mainland;

Vasco da Gama, who in 1498 discovered the eastern route to Asia and disclosed the riches of the Orient;

Christopher Columbus, who in 1492 discovered the New World, later called America;

Amerigo Vespucci, after whom the New World is generally considered to be named;

Pedro Alvares Cabral, whose discovery of Brazil in 1500 is described in a letter by Pero Vaz de Caminha;

Gaspar Corte Real, whose voyage to Newfoundland and Labrador lasted from October, 1500, to January, 1501. The incidents of this voyage are related in a letter of Pasqualigo, Italian Ambassador at Lisbon. From this letter Alberto Cantino prepared his map, one of the earliest of America, after discussions with members of the crew.

Another book of special interest in the Oliveira Lima Library is a facsimile of the first book of Ptolemy's geography, translated into Portuguese in 1537 by Dr. Pedro Nunes.

Today, as giant clippers of the air, weighing sometimes 20 tons, wing their way to the mystical East and tropical America, it is difficult to look back to the age of Prince Henry, the Navigator, and recognize the relative greatness of his accomplishments. The fascinating story of the far-flung empire of the little Portuguese nation in the fifteenth century is a colorful chapter in world history. The period of Prince Henry might be compared to a bridge between the knowledge of Claudius Ptolemy and Marco Polo and the greater knowledge of Vasco da Gama and Christopher Columbus.

The progressive country of Portugal planned and erected fortifications to protect the west coast of Africa and founded rich colonies in the East, in China and India, as well as in the West, in the valuable territory first known as "The Land of the Holy Cross", later called Brazil. This is the Portuguese contribution to civilization in the New World.



CONVENTION OF THE PAN AMERICAN STUDENT FORUM

I FEEL that untold good has already resulted from the holding of this convention; time will show us the more practical results." Thus spoke the executive secretary of the Pan American Student Forum at the close of the organization's second biennial meeting, held in Oklahoma City March 21-23 last.

This second convention was attended by 500 or more delegates from six mid-western States. These visitors, together with hundreds of citizens of Oklahoma's capital city and of other parts of the State, completely filled the two auditoriums where the general sessions were alternately held.

On the opening night of the convention the spacious Shrine Auditorium was used. Here the delegates and a crowd of several thousand assembled. Addresses of welcome were made by the Hon. Thomas McGee, mayor of Oklahoma City, Mr. C. K. Reiff, superintendent of schools, and Dr. A. G. Williamson, president of Oklahoma City University. Mr. E. B. Cauthorn, assistant superintendent of schools, Dallas, Tex., responded on the part of the visiting delegates.

The principal address of the evening was delivered by His Excellency the Minister of Panama to the United States, Dr. Ricardo C. Alfaro. After an unusually warm reception, Dr. Alfaro said, among other things: "Pan Americanism is the joint action of the sovereign nations of America for the consideration and solution of their common problems. Its origin can be traced through two avenues: The declaration of the Monroe Doctrine in 1823 and the Congress of Panama in 1826. . . .

"The advances of Pan Americanism have been made in the face of many forces working against good understanding. Distrust and fear of the United States have been and continue to be the strongest foe of Pan Americanism in Latin America. An overbearing attitude in respect to the countries and peoples south of the Rio Grande has been the greatest obstacle in North America. . . . Trade between the United States and Latin American countries reached a value of \$2,000,000,000 in 1929. . . . Last year inter-American trade increased about 40 percent."

Immediately after the diplomat's address the pageant *United America* was presented. These exercises depicted the meeting of General Simón Bolívar and delegates from several Latin American countries

at Panama in 1826; another phase of the pageant presented the delegates of 17 American nations at the First Pan American Conference at Washington in 1889. Many students participated in the pageant and also in several Spanish dances. These were greatly appreciated by the audience, as was evidenced by generous applause.

The following days of the convention were devoted to business and general sessions. At the latter various distinguished persons delivered addresses, among whom were Hon. Luis Pérez Abreu, Mexican consul in Oklahoma City; Prof. Rafael Belaúnde, Jr., professor of International Relations, University of Miami; Mrs. John Case Griswold, founder of the Pan American Round Table of Texas; Dr. W. B. Bizzell, president of the University of Oklahoma; Stanley C. Draper, managing director, Oklahoma City Chamber of Commerce; Dr. A. B. Thomas, University of Oklahoma; and W. H. Butler and E. B. Cauthorn, of Dallas, Texas. Numerous other speakers were on the program at one or another of the general sessions. William A. Reid, Foreign Trade Adviser of the Pan American Union, made the principal address at the joint meeting of the Chamber of Commerce and the Student Forum, his subject being *Lines of Destiny*.

A unique feature of one of the sessions was the "educational clinic" conducted by Professor Rafael Belaúnde and Mr. William A. Reid. The topic, "Why a Pan America?" was discussed by a number of speakers in five-minute talks. Questions and answers also occupied a part of this session, which became animated as diversified subject matter was presented for "dissection."

The retiring president of the Forum, Mr. David Weinstein, a lawyer of Dallas, Texas, presented an interesting review of the progress of the organization during the past two years. Remarkable growth was shown. The new president, Mr. Earl T. Warren, of the University of Oklahoma, has spent several years in Latin America and brings to the Forum practical inter-American experiences. Miss Fletcher Ryan Wickham, the indefatigable and hard-working executive secretary, was re-elected for another term, as was the treasurer of the Forum, Mr. Henry Widdecke, a banker of Dallas, Texas.

One of the outstanding features of the convention was the splendidly organized and well-executed work of the committees in charge of arrangements. Another feature worthy of mention was the serious manner with which the many student assistants and speakers performed their parts on the program and the fine spirit in which hundreds of young people worked in unison, pulling together in a great and worthy cause. At the grand banquet and ball youth, beauty, and merriment typified the social side of life of these builders of inter-America's tomorrow.

The next convention of the Pan American Student Forum will be held at Atlanta, Georgia, in 1937.

THE SEVENTH PAN AMERICAN CHILD CONGRESS

THE Government of Mexico has sent to the other American Republics a formal invitation to appoint delegates to the Seventh Pan American Child Congress, which will be held in Mexico City from October 12 to 19 next. Physicians, lawyers, nurses, teachers, parents and all citizens of the Americas interested in child welfare are likewise invited to attend. Since October is one of the most pleasant months of the year in Mexico, this will be an added inducement for many delegates to come from near and far to "take counsel for the welfare of America's children", to use the phrase employed by Miss Katharine F. Lenroot, Chief of the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, in describing another Pan American Child Congress.

The organizing committee for the approaching congress has been constituted as follows:

President: DR. ABRAHÁM AYALA GONZÁLEZ.

First Vice President: DR. AQUILINO VILLANUEVA.

Second Vice President: DR. ALFONSO G. ALARCÓN.

Secretary General: DR. ALFONSO PRUNEDA.

Assistant Secretary: DR. FRANCISCO DE P. MIRANDA.

Members:

Section I. Drs. ISIDRO ESPINOSA DE LOS REYES and MARIO A. TORROELLA.

Section II. Drs. PABLO MENDIZÁBAL and JUAN FARILL.

Section III. Drs. ALFONSO G. ALARCÓN and RIGOBERTO AGUILAR P.

Section IV. Drs. FEDERICO GÓMEZ and JOSÉ F. FRANCO.

Section V. Srs. ANTONIO MÉDIZ BOLIO and MANUEL RUEDA MAGRO.

Section VI. Dr. GAUDENCIO GONZÁLEZ GARZA and Professor ROSAURA ZAPATA.

This committee has adopted regulations dividing the congress into six sections and has suggested the subjects given below for discussion by the official delegates:

SECTION I. MEDICAL PEDIATRICS

1. Rickets.
2. Allergic states in childhood.
3. Mucous-hemorrhagic colitis of childhood.

SECTION II. SURGICAL PEDIATRICS AND ORTHOPEDICS

1. Focal infections in childhood.
2. Medical, surgical and orthopedic treatment of paralysis in childhood.
3. Treatment of tuberculous osteoarthritis in childhood.

SECTION III. CHILD HEALTH

1. How to secure a pure milk supply for children.
2. Prophylaxis of intestinal parasitosis.
3. Influence of hospitalization on the mental state of children.

SECTION IV. SOCIAL WELFARE

1. Care of sick and handicapped children.
2. Minimum requirements for visiting nurses and social workers.
3. Medical, educational and social standards for the day nursery.

SECTION V. LEGISLATION

1. Obligations of the State with regard to child welfare. Pertinent legislation. "The Children's Code."
2. Natural, legal and social reasons for maternity rights.
3. Legislation on juvenile delinquency.

SECTION VI. EDUCATION

1. Education of abnormal children.
2. Pre-school education.
3. Classification of pupils: Function in protecting the child and advantages in education.

The following subjects are recommended by the committee for consideration by the respective sections:

SECTION I.

1. Tuberculosis of infancy.
2. Bronchopneumonia of infancy and its treatment.
3. Hemotherapy in pediatrics.
4. Care of premature infants.
5. Classification of gastrointestinal diseases of infancy.
6. Problem of rehydration in pediatrics.
7. Endocrine syndromes most frequent in infancy.
8. Vitamin deficiencies most frequent in infancy.
9. Appendicitis in childhood.
10. Treatment of congenital syphilis.

SECTION II

1. Surgical treatment of epilepsy.
2. Surgical treatment of chronic pleurisy.
3. Treatment of curvature of the spine.
4. Transfusions in surgical pediatrics.
5. Treatment of osteomyelitis.
6. Surgical treatment of paraplegia in tuberculous spondylitis.
7. Treatment of osteomastoiditis.
8. Sudden post-operative death of children.
9. Surgical treatment of tuberculous peritonitis.
10. Heliotherapy in surgical tuberculosis.

SECTION III

1. Early weaning as a factor in infant mortality.
2. Minimum diet in the gastrointestinal affections of childhood.
3. Vitamins in children's diet.
4. Prophylaxis of bronchopneumonia.
5. Value of vaccine in the treatment of whooping-cough.
6. The Schick test and vaccination against diphtheria.
7. Treatment of measles by the serum of convalescents.
8. Treatment of myopia in school children.
9. Treatment of ringworm in school children.
10. Use of Calmette's vaccine against tuberculosis.

Subsection on Prenatal Hygiene

1. Improper or insufficient diet in pregnancy.
2. Alcoholism and pregnancy.
3. Treatment of cardiopathic women in pregnancy.
4. Calciotherapy in pregnancy.
5. Attempted abortion and its relation to abnormal births.
6. Treatment of purulent ophthalmia.
7. Treatment of umbilical infections.
8. What the midwife should do when a new-born infant appears to have died.
9. Feeding of infants during the first three days of life.
10. Care of premature infants.

SECTION IV

1. Organization and operation of preventoriums.
2. Country and seaside camps for convalescent and undernourished children.
3. Coordination and development of the instruction of mothers in the proper care of their children.
4. The Red Cross and its permanent cooperation in child welfare.
5. Organization and operation of psychiatric clinics for children.
6. Cooperation of medical organizations in child welfare.
7. Child welfare in rural communities.
8. Protection of juvenile performers in circuses, theaters, and similar spectacles.
9. Education of nurses specializing in infant and child care.
10. The Institute for the Protection of Childhood, coordinator of child welfare activities in every country.

SECTION V

1. Investigation of paternity, since all children have the right to know the identity of their parents.
2. Protection of illegitimate children.
3. Legal means for incorporating into the family children born out of wedlock.
4. Legislation on maternity insurance.
5. Legislation on behalf of foundlings, orphans and other homeless children and the children of delinquents.
6. Legislation for fitting delinquent minors for a place in society, such legislation being complementary to that on the prevention of delinquency.
7. Legislative reforms to facilitate and promote adoption.
8. Compulsory ante-nuptial certificate.
9. Legislative reforms to facilitate birth registration in the Civil Register.
10. Legislation to facilitate the establishment of day nurseries, maternity hospitals, orphan asylums, etc., by private initiative.

SECTION VI

1. Suitable recreation for children.
2. The children's theater as a means of education.
3. Programs of physical education for children.
4. Importance of furniture and educational material in kindergartens.
5. Scientific bases for planning the school day.
6. Progressive education.
7. Cooperation between home and school.
8. Vocational guidance in elementary schools.
9. Instruction in child care in post-primary schools.
10. Schools for physical and mental rehabilitation.

The papers written by official delegates will be read at plenary sessions of the congress.

Those presented by non-official delegates will be given at section meetings and may be in any one of the official languages of the conference—English, Spanish, French, or Portuguese. They must be accompanied by *résumé*, translated into two of the other languages, and must be sent to the secretary a week before the opening of the congress.

Correspondence should be addressed to the secretary, Dr. Alfonso Pruneda, Departamento de Salubridad Pública, Esquina del Paseo de la Reforma y Calle de Lieja, México, D. F., México.



LATIN AMERICAN COMMITTEE ON THE WORLD CALENDAR

FOR more than 2,000 years the western world has reckoned time according to a calendar which, although it has undergone some changes and improvements, has continued to be based on a year of 52 weeks and a day, divided into 12 months, varying in length from 28 to 31 days, with a leap year every four years to compose the difference between the calendar and the astronomical years. The last change was made by Pope Gregory XIII in 1582 to make the year more nearly accurate. It has become increasingly apparent in modern times to economists, statisticians, business men, and educators, that this calendar had certain definite disadvantages because the length of months, quarters, and half years is unequal and the day of the month falls on a different day of the week in successive years. Calendar reform, therefore, has been agitated throughout the world, and many systems elaborated.

The World Calendar Plan proposes a system whereby each year is the same as at present, but the unit is an invariable quarter composed of one month of 31 days and two of 30. The 365th day is a holiday, inserted between December and January; in leap year a second holiday is inserted between June and July. The adoption of this new and perpetual calendar on January 1, 1939, the next time that January 1 falls on a Sunday, is being considered in all parts of the world.

Interest in the World Calendar is growing in Latin America, and several Governments, of which Chile was the first, have given the project their official approval. Señor Alejandro Serani, Chilean Minister of Labor, has issued the following statement on his country's attitude toward it:

"This Ministry has carefully studied the project of the perpetual calendar advocated by the World Calendar Association of New York, and by the former director of the Chilean National Astronomical Observatory, Dr. Ismael Gajardo Reyes, president of the Latin American Association for Calendar Reform.

"This Ministry finds such a project very advantageous, as it involves relatively few changes in comparison with the Gregorian Calendar, at present in use by all civilized nations. The project proposes that every year shall begin on Sunday; the days of the week to fall every year on the same dates; the Easter date, which has at present an oscillation of 35 days, to fall on a fixed date, thus rendering the other religious holidays also immovable; every month to have 26

working days; the quarters and semesters to have the same duration, each quarter beginning on Sunday and ending on Saturday. These reforms are made with so slight a change that the transition from the present calendar to the new one will be almost unnoticeable.

"This Ministry finds this reform of such manifest convenience, both for commercial life and business, as well as for the welfare of the working class, that it represents an advantage of great benefit to all nations, such as has been the case in the past with the adoption of the decimal system, standard time and daylight saving, or any other improvement in the systems of weights and measures, international exchanges, etc.

"In consideration of all these facts, this Department has the honor to request the Ministry of Foreign Relations to recommend this project to the consideration of the League of Nations, issuing instructions for the Chilean Delegation in Geneva to favor this project before the League."

Under the chairmanship of Dr. Gajardo Reyes, a coordinating committee has been created by the calendar reform organizations of several Latin American nations. The associations in five countries, representing ten nations in all, have appointed members to the committee. They are as follows:

ARGENTINA: Lt. Gen. Don Luis I. Dellepiane, *president*; Don Ángel Pegoraso; Rev. Nilo Arriaga, S. J.; Don Juan Carullo.

BOLIVIA: Don Moisés Santiviáñez, *president*; Don Guillermo V. Aramayo; Don Víctor Muñoz Reyes; Don Emilio Villanueva.

BRAZIL: Captain Radler de Aquino, *president*; Senhor José Frazão Milanez; Dr. Sodrê da Gama.

CHILE: Rev. Valentín Panzarasa, *president*; Don Alberto Cumming; Don Santiago Lorca Pellross.

COLOMBIA: Dr. Eduardo Posada, *president*; Dr. José Álvarez Lleras; Gen. Carlos Cortés Vargas; Col. Luis Acevedo F.

COSTA RICA: Don Teodoro Picado, *president*; Señor García Monje; Don Luis Doble Segreda.

MEXICO: Don Joaquín Gallo, *president*; Don Hugo Eyer; Ing. Manuel O'Reilly.

PANAMA: Don Octavio Méndez Pereira, *president*; Prof. Catalino Arrocha; Don Ieptka B. Duncan.

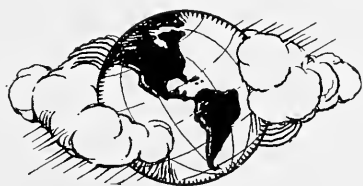
URUGUAY: Prof. Alberto Reyes Thevenet, *president*; Don Fernando Fuentes; Prof. Eduardo Rouband.

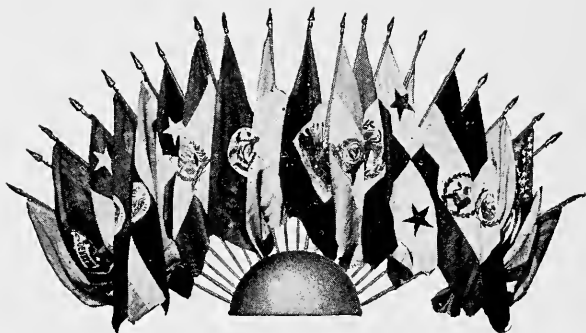
Encouraging news has also been received by the World Calendar Association from some other American countries. In Mexico, the committee appointed by the Government consisted of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, Education, and Economics, who recommended that the Government adopt the 12-month equal-quarter plan. The Foreign Minister of Venezuela stated that his Government would not oppose the adoption of the World Calendar. The calendar commis-

sion in Argentina, under the chairmanship of Lieut. Gen. Luis Dellepiane, former Minister of War, is actively engaged in presenting the plan to the people and the Government, and is hopeful that definite action by the latter will soon be taken. The strong organization in Rio de Janeiro, under the leadership of Capt. Radler de Aquino, has made marked progress in interesting the Brazilian Government in calendar reform.

Early this spring Dr. Gajardo Reyes made a visit of inspection and conference, as the official representative of his Government, to the committees in Argentina, Uruguay, and Brazil. Mr. Charles C. Sutter of New York, director of the World Calendar Association, accompanied him on the trip. Mr. Sutter was impressed by the enthusiasm shown by leaders of the Catholic church in the various countries, and in a brief summary of the activities he found in the American countries he quotes the following paragraph from an address given by the official spokesman over a radio-hookup embracing all the important radio stations in Brazil:

"The Chilean Committee on Calendar Reform is presided over by an illustrious Salesian priest, the Reverend Father Valentín Panzarasa, who has taken up this subject with the Apostolic Nuncio in Santiago, Monsignor Ettore Felice. From this authoritative source comes the information that His Holiness, Pius XI, finds the plan of the World Calendar very practical and convenient, and besides sees no dogmatic objection to the fixation of Easter on April 8 as provided in this plan of reform."





PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

Codification of international law.—At the meeting of the Governing Board on May 1, it was voted that a list of jurists to serve on a commission for undertaking the work of the codification of international law be submitted to the American Governments on August 6, if by that date partial lists have been received from all the countries members of the Union. From the complete list of not more than five names from each nation, each Government shall designate seven persons, only two of whom shall be nationals, whom they desire to constitute the Commission of Experts charged by the Seventh International Conference of American States with the duty of organizing, with a preliminary character, the work of codification. The seven persons obtaining the highest number of votes shall constitute the first Commission of Experts.

Unification of laws on bills of exchange.—The chairman of the Board was authorized to designate a committee, made up of members of the Board and other experts, to formulate a draft project on the unification of the law on bills of exchange. This committee is as follows: The Ambassador of Chile; the Minister of Colombia; the Minister of El Salvador; Guerra Everett, Chief, Division of Commercial Laws, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce; and John J. O'Connor, Manager, Finance Division, Chamber of Commerce of the United States.

Bibliography.—Two resolutions were passed on this subject. The first recommended, in conformity with the provisions of the resolution on inter-American bibliography adopted by the Seventh International Conference of American States, that the Inter-American Bibliographical Association be requested to prepare, with the coopera-

tion of the National Commissions on Bibliography, a uniform plan of cataloging, which will be submitted to the Governments with the request that they express their points of view on the possibility of reaching an agreement on a uniform system for all the countries of America.

In the second resolution, measures are recommended for the collection of bibliographical material as a preparatory step to the incorporation of the national bibliographies of the countries of Latin America in the Union Catalogue mentioned in article 3 of the resolution of the Seventh Conference.

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Library science in Spanish.—Among recent acquisitions are interesting and valuable new works on library science, published in Mexico. The respective authors are Juana Manrique de Lara and María Teresa Chávez.

The *Guía de encabezamientos de materia para los catálogos diccionarios* by Señorita Manrique de Lara, who studied in the National Library School in Mexico City and the Library School of the New York Public Library, fills a long felt need in supplying a dictionary catalog of subject-headings in Spanish with numerous cross references, making it helpful to both librarians and readers. In publishing this first edition the author requests aid from users which might improve any future editions of the work. A second library study of hers, recently completed, is *Definiciones de términos bibliográficos*, a collection of 243 terms with complete definitions; and a third, consisting of only a few pages, but very helpful, is the *Lista poliglota de los principales términos bibliográficos que se pueden encontrar en las portadas de los libros*, containing the Spanish vocabulary and its equivalent in German, French, English and Italian. This latter work was compiled with the aid of Señora Esperanza G. de Schroeder.

Señorita Chávez's studies are a group of library science pamphlets published as textbooks under the general title *Breves notas para el curso elemental vespertino [de clasificacion, etc.]*. Each pamphlet covers a distinct phase of library work, as follows: Cataloging, Library administration, Bibliography, Book selection, Reference work, History of books, and Classification. These studies are published in mimeographed form, as are those of Srta. Manrique de Lara.

New books.—Included in other recent acquisitions are the following:

Misiones de la Patagonia—Monografía de Fortín Mercedes. 1895—Fortín Mercedes—1933. Bahía Blanca, Talleres gráficos Jannelli hnos. [1933?] 4 p.l., 13–271 p., 1 l. illus., plates (part col.), ports., fold. diagr., maps (1 fold.) 32 cm. [The Salesian missions in the Patagonian area have done much to aid the Indians, to establish schools and other cultural centers for them, and to preserve archaeological and historic objects in museums. This volume tells of

the inception of numerous works a century ago by Don Bosco, whose canonization occurred at Easter, 1934, and within the last 20 years by Father Gaudencio Manachino, inspector of the Patagonian Salesian Missions.]

Vidas argentinas [por] Octavio R. Amadeo. Buenos Aires, Librería y editorial "La Facultad", Juan Roldán y cía., 1934. 324 p. 21 cm. [The subjects of these biographical essays are Carlos Pellegrini, Gen. Julio A. Roca, Adolfo Alsina, Leandro N. Alem, Bernardo de Irigoyen, José Luis Murature, Domingo F. Sarmiento, Roque Sáenz Peña, Indalecio Gómez, Nicolás Avellaneda, David Peña, Dardo Rocha el Fundador, Eduardo Costa, Bartolomé Mitre, El Juez Bermejo, Juan Manuel de Rosas and Bernardino Rivadavia.]

Las cooperadoras escolares y la enseñanza primaria [por] José Antonio de Vita. Buenos Aires, Imprenta Mercatali 1934. 273 p. plates, diagr. 24 cm. [The author has been a teacher for several years. His published works include several on history and education. This most recent publication, which went to press during the fiftieth anniversary of the Argentine *Ley de educación común* in 1934, contains his observations and suggestions on school cooperatives in his native land and in general. Many sections were previously published in *La Razón*, a Buenos Aires daily.]

Pernambuco aos rotarianos da convenção distrital de 1934 [pela] Diretoria geral de estatística. Recife (Pernambuco) [Executado nas Oficinas graphicas da Emp. Diario da manha S/A, 1934.] 43 p. illus., plates (incl. ports., diagrs., part col.) tables. 30 cm. This publication of the government of Pernambuco, issued in honor of the Fifth Brazilian Rotary conference, contains descriptive material on Recife, agriculture in the state, other natural resources, interesting towns and historic spots. Although the text is not very long, the numerous illustrations and the beautiful plates, some in colors but most in duo-tone (the majority done by F. Rebelo) make it an interesting volume.]

Actas del Cabildo de Santiago . . . publicadas por la Sociedad chilena de historia y geografía. Santiago de Chile, Imprenta universitaria, 1933. t. XXV: 292 p. 24½ cm. (Colección de historiadores de Chile y de documentos relativos a la historia nacional, t. XLVI.) [The publication of this volume of the *Actas* is triply important: first, because it is the first volume to appear of the series *Colección de historiadores* since 1923; second, because it renews the publication of the *Actas*, the twenty-fourth volume of which appeared almost two decades ago; and third, because the Sociedad chilena de historia y geografía has taken over this important work of preserving the contents of the archives for posterity, a work nobly carried on from 1898 to 1915 by Don José Toribio Medina who, in addition to all his other tasks, edited 23 volumes of the *Actas* covering the years 1558 to 1705. In the present volume, covering 1706–09, and in future ones, the Society intends to continue the plan as used by Medina and Juan Pablo Urzúa. The latter was the editor of the first volume of the *Actas* (1541–57), which was the initial volume of the *Colección*.]

Zig-Zag—homenaje a la ciudad de Lima, IV centenario.—[Santiago de Chile, Empresa editora Zig-Zag, 1934] 259, [1] p. illus., plates (part. col.), ports., facsimis. 25½ cm. [As an evidence of Chilean-Peruvian accord the publishers of the Chilean periodical *Zig-Zag* issued this special edition to honor Lima on its fourth centenary. It contains many excellent reproductions of Peruvian art and architecture, and articles on colonial and republican Peru, and on contemporary political, economic, administrative, social and cultural life in the capital city.]

Código civil, concordado con la legislación y la jurisprudencia del mismo desde el 20 de abril de 1899 hasta el 24 de diciembre de 1933. Recopilado, ordenado y anotado por Eduardo Rafael Núñez y Núñez. . . . Primera edición. La Habana, Jesús Montero, editor, 1935. v. 2: 7 p.1., [7]–509 p. 24½ cm. (Biblioteca jurídica de autores cubanos y extranjeros. Volumen XVIII.) Contents: Las

personas. Artículos 17 al 332. [The first volume of this work, published in 1934, was listed in the *BULLETIN* for February 1935. It received just acclaim from jurists at home and abroad. The author arranges the work by the articles of the Code, followed by related legislation and by Supreme Court decisions involving the respective article. He plans to issue periodic supplements in order to keep the work up-to-date. The subject of the next volume to appear will be property.]

Homenaje a Enrique José Varona en el cincuentenario de su primer curso de filosofía (1880-1930). Miscelánea de estudios literarios, históricos y filosóficos. La Habana, Publicaciones de la Secretaría de educación, Dirección de cultura, 1935. 591 p. plates (port., facsim.) 27 cm. [Shortly before the fiftieth anniversary of Varona's first philosophy class in 1930 it was suggested that a living memorial be made to the great Cuban educator in the form of essays written by representative Spanish and Hispano-American writers. The idea was not fully crystallized until a year after his death in November, 1933, when the *Dirección de cultura* authorized the publication of the work. It appeared in its completed form in the latter part of January, 1935. The volume includes essays by contemporary American and Spanish authors on Varona, American literature, Cuban political, social, and cultural conditions, general philosophic questions, etc. Some well-known names among the contributors are Mariano Azuela, Roberto Brenes Mesén, Antonio S. de Bustamante y Montoro, Alfred Coester, José María Chacón y Calvo, Antonio Gómez Restrepo, Pedro Henríquez Ureña, Jorge Mañach, Emilio Roig de Leuchsenring, and Carlos M. Trelles.]

La catedral de Santo Domingo; descripción histórico-artístico arqueológica de este portentoso templo, primada de las Indias, por Luis E. Alemar. Primera edición. Barcelona, Casa editorial Araluce [Talleres Olympia, 1933] 106, [6] p. plates, ports. 24½ cm. (This beautiful volume gives the complete description of the famous cathedral, important primarily as the last resting-place of Columbus. Thirty-two plates in duotone finish accompany the interesting text, which is further augmented by descriptive and bibliographical foot-notes and numerous documentary appendices.)

Testamento del Señor Capitán Don Sebastián de Benalcázar, conquistador y fundador de la ciudad de San Francisco de Quito. Versión paleográfica de Jorge Garcés G. y anotaciones del Rdo. Padre Fr. Alfonso A. Jerves, O. P. Quito [Talleres tipográficos municipales] 1935. 5 p.l., [7]-78 p. 2 plates (ports.) 27½ cm. (Publicaciones del Archivo municipal—V.) [This most recent publication of the Quito Archives marks the first known printing of the will of the founder of Quito. The document was found in the Archivo de las Indias in Seville, photographed, and published in honor of the Quito quadricentennial.]

Primer centenario de la Sociedad mexicana de geografía y estadística, 1833-1933 . . . Mexico, Sociedad mexicana de geografía y estadística, 1933. v. 1: xv, 456 p. illus., plates, ports., fold. map. 24 cm. [This noteworthy publication includes numerous articles related to the matters of the Sociedad mexicana de geografía y estadística. Some of the longer ones are: "La importancia aeronáutica de la América", por Manuel de Anda; "La geografía, el derecho de gentes y la política internacional", por Francisco L. de la Barra; "Veinticinco años en la Sociedad mexicana de geografía y estadística", por Alberto María Carreño; "Principales islas del Golfo de California y el archipiélago de las Revillagigedo", por Julio Mitchell; "Documentos referentes a la destrucción de templos e ídolos; violación de sepulcros y las remociones de indios e ídolos en Nueva España durante el siglo xvi", por Zelia Nuttall; "La Provincia franciscana de Zacatecas en el año de 1766. Tierras de 'Pan llevar' y ranchos pertenecientes a las misiones franciscanas de Sonora a fines del siglo xviii", por Fernando Ocaranza; "La estadística; su evolución en México", por Adolfo Ruiz Cortines y Luis Hijar y Haro; and "Las ruinas occidentales del viejo imperio Maya, en la sierra de

'Tortuguero', en Macuspana, Tabasco", por Francisco J. Santamaría. The second (and last) volume, which was received in the Library several months ago, is composed of a long study by Enrique Juan Palacios entitled "El calendario de los jeroglíficos cronográficos mayas" and two shorter ones by Francisco Pérez Salazar and Ramón Prida.]

Renasant Mexico, edited by Hubert Herring and Herbert Weinstock. Introduction by Ernest Gruening. New York, Covici, Friede, publishers [c. 1935] 7 p.l., 322 p. 21 cm. [The Foreword states that "the chapters comprising *Renasant Mexico* are an outgrowth of the annual Seminar conducted in Mexico by the Committee on cultural relations with Latin America". Contents: Introduction: the meaning of Mexico, by Ernest Gruening. The key to the Mexican chaos, by Luis Cabrera. Folkways and city ways, by Robert Redfield. International relations on the American continents, by Edwin M. Borchard. Learning to think internationally, by Eduard C. Lindeman. Some economic aspects of Mexico's six year plan, by Ramón Beteta. The six-year plan: a criticism, by Chester Lloyd Jones. The six-year plan in education, by Rafael Ramírez. Banking in Mexico, by Antonio Espinosa de los Monteros. Revolutions: Mexican and Russian, by Stanley Rypins. Indian Mexico, by Moisés Sáenz. Mexican Folk Dances, by Frances Toor. Mexican Music, by Carlos Chávez. The fiesta as a work of art, by René d'Harnoncourt. Plastic art in pre-conquest Mexico, by Diego Rivera. Archaeological sites today, by Herbert J. Spinden. The novel of the Mexican revolution, by Berta Gamboa de Camino. Some modern Mexican poets, by Elizabeth Wallace. America and the Americas, by Hubert C. Herring.]

De la Conquista a nuestros días; historia del tabaco [por] M. J. Gornés MacPherson. Caracas, Editorial "Elite", Lit. y tip. Vargas, 1933. xiv p., 2 l., 3-437 p. plates, ports., tables. 23 cm. [This unusual work gives a complete history of tobacco in Venezuela covering its cultivation and industry in all the states of the Republic. The introductory section gives a brief but interesting history of tobacco since its "discovery" by the first explorers in America, and tells of the first users of the product. The Appendix is composed of W. W. Garner's work, *Cultivo del tabaco en los Estados Unidos de América*; reprinted from the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union.]

Addresses and statements by the Honorable Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States of America, in connection with his trip to South America, 1933-1934, to attend the Seventh international conference of American states, Montevideo, Uruguay. Washington, U. S. Govt. print. off., 1934. ix, 103 p. ([Publication No. 694]) ["In view of the success of the Conference and its importance in the development of better inter-American relations, the trip of the Secretary of State has assumed especial significance," it is stated in the Foreword. The compilation includes pertinent addresses and statements from November 1, 1933, February 10, 1934.]

The South American handbook, 1935 (twelfth annual edition); a year book and guide to the countries and resources of Latin America, inclusive of South and Central America, Mexico, and Cuba. Edited by Howell Davies. . . . London, Published by Trade and travel publications ltd. [1935] lx, 650 p. fold. col. map. 19 cm. [The South American handbook in its twelfth edition carries on its purpose of furnishing the tourist and the commercial traveller with necessary data on travel in the countries to the south. The general section supplies data on population, seasons for visits, weights and measures, a glossary of terms, in Spanish, Portuguese, and English, for sports, products, air services, steamship services, railways, banking, and civics. The respective sections covering each country of Latin America except the Dominican Republic and Haiti, as well as the foreign possessions on the mainland, include data on important cities, physical features, government, history, natural resources, communications, etc.]

Historia de la literatura castellana; estudio histórico-crítico que comprende la literatura hispano-americana, por Abigail Mejía de Fernández. . . . Segunda edición, aumentada considerablemente y corregida por su autora. Síntesis de las lecciones dadas en la Escuela normal. Obra declarada de texto por el Consejo nacional de educación de Santo Domingo. Barcelona, Casa editorial Araluce [1933]. 488 p. 21 cm. [The author is a teacher in the Escuela normal of Santo Domingo and the director of the National Museum; she has also written several works literary, critical, and biographical in character. The present work was declared an official text-book for the Dominican Republic by a decree of October 1928. It covers the origin of the Spanish language, Spanish literature from the thirteenth century up to the present, and Spanish-American literature from the Conquest up to and including contemporary writers. A six-page bibliography is appended.]

The following magazines were new or received for the first time during the past month:

Fallos de la Corte suprema de justicia de la nación, con la relación de sus respectivas causas. Buenos Aires, 1934. Volumen CLXX—entrega cuarta, 1934. [80] p. 26½x18 cm. Editors: Doctores Raúl Giménez Videla and Ramón T. Méndez. Address: Corte suprema de justicia de la nación, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Mensario de estatística da produção; publicação da Directoria de estatística da produção do Ministerio da agricultura. Rio de Janeiro, 1935. Anno I, N° 1, janeiro, 1935. [38] p. tables, diagrs. 31½x25 cm. Address: Directoria de estatística da produção do Ministerio da agricultura, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

Chile para el turista; revista quincenal. Santiago de Chile, 1935. Año I, N° 3, enero 1935. 47 p. illus. 26½x19 cm. Editor: Luis Muñoz Opazo. Address: Huérfanos 1112, Santiago de Chile.

Panorama magazine; revista gráfica mensual. Santiago de Chile, 1934. Diciembre de 1934. 56 p. illus., ports. 27x19 cm. Editor: Eduardo Santa María P. Address: Compañía 2464, Casilla 1840, Santiago de Chile.

Turismo austral; revista mensual pro-fomento del turismo en la zona austral de Chile. Valdivia, 1934. Año II, N° 16, diciembre de 1934. 193 p. illus., maps. 26½x19 cm. Editor: Charles O'Compley. Address: Casilla 700, Valdivia, Chile.

Industria; boletín de la Sociedad de fomento fabril. Santiago de Chile, 1935. Año LII, N° 1, enero de 1935. 70 p. tables. 26x18½ cm. Monthly. Address: Casilla 44 D, Moneda 759, Santiago de Chile. (This is the first publication of this magazine under the present title. The former title, used for fifty-one years, was "Boletín de la Sociedad de fomento fabril.")

Colombia industrial; revista mensual, órgano de "La industria nacional colombiana" (Asociación nacional de industriales). Bogotá, 1935. Volumen I, Número 20, febrero de 1935. 23 p. 29x22 cm. Editor: José J. Hoyos. Address: Carrera 7ª., No. 13-38; Oficina No. 3, Apartado postal, 23-47, Bogotá, Colombia.

Arquitectura; revista mensual. Órgano oficial del Colegio provincial de arquitectos de la Habana. Habana, 1934. Año 2, No. 17, diciembre 1934. 14 p. illus. 30½x24 cm. Editor: Arq. J. M. Bens-Arrarte. Address: Infanta y 25, Habana, Cuba.

Boletín de la Dirección general del estanco de alcoholes y administración del impuesto al tabaco. Quito, 1935. Año I, N° 1, febrero de 1935. 70 p. plates, tables. 26½x19 cm. Monthly. Address: Casilla de correos No. 604, Quito, Ecuador.

Jalisco industrial; órgano de la Cámara nacional de comercio, industria, y minería de Guadalajara. Guadalajara, 1935. Año I, N° 5, febrero de 1935. 42 p. illus. 28x20 cm. Monthly. Editor: Lic. Benito Javier Pérez Verdía. Address: Juarez 289, Apartado 243, Guadalajara, Jalisco, México.

El Rancho; revista mensual de agricultura y ganadería. Publicación de la Secretaría de agricultura y fomento. México, 1935. Año I, N° 1, enero de 1935. 80 p., illus., ports. 27½x20 cm. Editor: Oficina de publicaciones y propaganda, Sr. Ricardo Pinelo Río. Address: Tacuba 7, México, D. F., México.

Three Americas; a magazine about Latin America published for English-speaking readers by the Committee on cultural relations with Latin America. Mexico City, 1935. Vol. I, N° 1, March, 1935. 16 p. 23x17 cm. Monthly. Editor: Hubert Herring. Address: Amazonas 81, Apartado postal 1521, México, D. F., México.

Servicio informativo peruano; boletín de noticias para la prensa nacional y extranjera. Lima, 1935. Año I, N° 21, 16 de marzo de 1935. 1 p. 69x45 cm. Weekly. Editor: Lucas Oyague. Address: Casilla 1756, Lima, Peru.

La nueva economía; publicación mensual. Órgano del Bureau industrial i comercial del Peru. Lima, 1935. Año I, N° 1, enero de 1935. 32 p. plates, ports., tables. 32½x22 cm. Editor: J. Alfredo Vidal Loredó. Address: Plateros de San Agustín 157, Apartado No. 1944, Lima, Peru.

Revista mensual del Banco central de reserva de El Salvador. San Salvador, 1934. Año I, N° 3, noviembre de 1934. 6 p. tables. 32½x21½ cm. Address: Banco central de reserva de El Salvador, San Salvador, El Salvador.

El gobierno de la nación; índice administrativo de instituciones públicas. Montevideo, 1934. Año I, vol. 1, octubre de 1934. 47 p. 33x23 cm. Bimonthly. Editor: Joaquín Goldaracena. Address: Juan Carlos Gómez 1488, Montevideo, Uruguay.

América; revista ilustrada. Caracas, 1935. Año 6, Mes 7, N° 66 y 67, febrero y marzo de 1935. 36 p. illus., ports. 23½x16½ cm. Monthly. Editor: José Manuel Pacheco. Address: Padre Sierra a Muñoz 30, Apartado de correos 962, Caracas, Venezuela.

Boletín de la Sociedad venezolana de ciencias naturales. Caracas, 1934. Número 18, mayo, junio y julio, 1934. [45] p. illus., diagr. 23½x16 cm. Quarterly. Address: Casa del antiguo Cuño, Parroquia de Altigracia, Apartado de correos N° 1521, Caracas, Venezuela.

Boletín del Ministerio de salubridad y de agricultura y cría. Caracas, 1935. Año II, N° 19, enero de 1935. 146 p. illus., ports., tables. 23½x16½ cm. Address: Ministerio de salubridad y de agricultura y cría, Caracas, Venezuela.

Cultura nacional; revista mensual. Caracas, 1935. Año I, Nos. 2 y 3, marzo de 1935. 44 p. 23½x16 cm. Editor: J. M. Núñez Ponte. Address: Avenida Este, 52, Caracas, Venezuela.

Revista ganadera; órgano de la Compañía ganadera industrial venezolana, S. A. Caracas, 1935. N° 6, marzo, 1935. 69 p. illus. 32½x24 cm. Monthly. Address: Altos del Banco venezolano de crédito, Apartado de correos no. 1126, Caracas, Venezuela.

Latin-American institute for race and culture studies. Philadelphia, 1935. Memorandum 1, February, 1935. 4 p. 28x21½ cm. Monthly. Address: The University museum, Thirty-third and Spruce streets, Philadelphia, Pa., U. S. A.

Ship, rail and air; an independent journal for American transportation industries. New York, 1935. Vol. I, N° 1, April, 1935. 28 p. illus. 30x22½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Frank Zotti. Address: Ship and rail publications, inc., 110 East 42nd Street, New York City, N. Y., U. S. A.

Bulletin of League of nations teaching. Geneva, 1934. No. 1, December 1934. 161 p. 24x15½ cm. Annual. Editor: Secretariat of the League of nations. Address: League of nations, Geneva, Switzerland. (The former *Educational Survey*, published twice yearly by the League of nations, is to be published annually under the title *Bulletin of League of nations teaching*, beginning with the 1934 issue.)

PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

THE FARROUPILHA EXPOSITION IN RIO GRANDE DO SUL, BRAZIL

With the cooperation of the Federation of Rural Associations (Federação das Associações Rurais) and the Industrial Center (Centro da Industria Fabril) the Government of the State of Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil, is to hold an exposition at Porto Alegre on September 20, 1935, to commemorate the centenary of the attempted revolution of the "Farroupilha" (Ragamuffins) so called in recognition of the courage which led the revolutionists to carry on despite poverty and rags. It was in this republican movement that Garibaldi, the future liberator of Italy, began his military career.

Rio Grande do Sul, the most southerly State of Brazil, has an area of 91,310 square miles and a population of 3,031,170 inhabitants. The exposition will not only commemorate the heroic past of the State but will also be a demonstration of the high degree of culture and economic progress which Rio Grande enjoys today. Stock raising is the most important industry of Rio Grande do Sul, the number of livestock being computed at about 25,000,000 head. In recent years, however, great progress has been made in the cultivation of the soil and today the production of corn, beans, wheat, rice, potatoes, tobacco, alfalfa, oranges and grapes is considerable. Porto Alegre, where the exposition will be held, is the most important commercial center of southern Brazil. Its industrial activities—lard refineries, sawmills, foundries, breweries, jerked beef plants, tanneries, woolen mills, etc.—are constantly increasing. The exposition will be open for 90 days and the other States of the Federation are expected to be represented as well as foreign industries. The organization of the exposition is in charge of a commission of which Major Alberto Bins is chairman. Its offices are located at Edifício "Imperial", Rua dos Andradas, 1073, 2 andar, Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil.

RECENT ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL^s DEVELOPMENTS IN CHILE

General economic conditions in Chile showed a considerable improvement in 1934 over conditions prevailing during the last few years, though still well below the levels reached during 1928 and

1929. This improvement may be noted by reviewing a number of developments during the year, as outlined below.

An improvement in the position of the nitrate industry in Chile was noted to the extent that exports of the product increased considerably in volume as compared with 1933. Thus, in 1933, 669,200 tons of nitrate were exported, with a value of 85 million gold pesos, while in 1934, 1,277,600 tons left the country, valued at 141 million gold pesos.

Gold production in Chile, which has become of special importance during the last two years, both on account of the value of the metal produced, as well as a measure for the relief of unemployment, continued to increase in an important degree during 1934. A comparison of the gold produced during the first ten months of the last three years shows the following:

	Gráms
1932.....	677, 892
1933.....	3, 698, 203
1934.....	5, 725, 220

The increase in the internal business activity in Chile during 1934 as compared with the previous year may be noted to a degree from the figures showing the value of check clearings in both periods. For the first 11 months of 1933, checks passed through the clearing houses to a value of 9,965 million pesos, while in the same period of 1934, the amount had increased to 12,274 million pesos.

For the first 11 months of 1934, Chilean exports of merchandise were valued at 449 million gold pesos, while imports were reported at 190 million gold pesos, the favorable trade surplus amounting to 259 million pesos. In comparison, foreign trade for the entire year 1933 was reported as: Exports, 343 million gold pesos, and imports, 181 million gold pesos, the favorable trade surplus being 162 million pesos. From the foregoing may be noted the substantial improvement which has taken place in Chilean foreign trade during the last year, as compared with 1933. In 1929, however, exports were valued at 2,282 million pesos, and imports at 1,591 pesos, so that, though the trade statistics over the last year have shown an improving trend, the value of the trade is still but a fraction of that of 1929.

While there was no sign in Chile during 1934 of a resumption of inflation to the degree which took place in 1932, it is of interest to note the movement of two economic indices during the past year in relation to the 1932 period, and in relation to the general economic welfare of the country. These indices are those on wage scales and the cost of living. As will be noted, the internal purchasing power, generally speaking, has not recovered. The movement of the indices of wage scales and the cost of living in the past five years has been as follows:

[January 1928 = 100]

	Average 1930	Average 1931	Average 1932	Average 1933	Average 1934, 11 months
Wage scales.....	127.9	84.4	70.3	87.9	102.6
Cost of living (Santiago).....	107.6	103.5	112.6	139.7	139.3

While the cost of living in many sections of Chile is considerably lower than in Santiago, the foregoing figures are at least indicative of the present situation. Though the cost of living has become more nearly stationary during the last year, wage levels have not yet reached the same position relative to living costs as existed prior to 1930.

During 1934, the gold reserves of the Central Bank held in Chile showed an increase from 85 million pesos to 127 million pesos, while gold held abroad showed a substantial decline from 82 million to 15 million pesos. The decline was due largely to losses suffered in converting into gold funds on deposit in London in pounds sterling. The portfolio of the bank continued in 1934 to be composed largely of advances to the Government; discounts to banks, to the public and to credit institutions not affiliated with the bank remaining at a low figure, and showing a decline from the amounts reported at the close of 1933. Thus, at the close of 1934, of total assets of the Central Bank of 983 million pesos, 704 million represented advances to the Government. At the close of 1933, of total assets of 1,001 million pesos, 672 million were advances to the Government. Notes of the Central Bank in circulation showed practically no change in volume from the close of 1933 to the end of 1934.

The volume of retail sales in Santiago during the first 11 months of 1934 showed a slight increase as compared with 1933, while the value of these sales was at about the same level as in 1933. The decline in the volume of sales as compared with 1929 was much greater than in value, showing the continued effects of the inflationary period in 1932.

Cost of living remained at about the same level as in 1933. The combined wholesale price index in the first 11 months of 1934 remained at about the same average as in 1933. Unemployment (according to registrations with the Labor Department) declined from a total of 48,637 in November 1933, to 12,778 in November 1934.

At the close of 1934, compensation agreements were in effect between Chile and Germany, Austria, Belgium (and Luxemburg), Brazil, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Spain, France, the Netherlands, Italy, Sweden and Switzerland.

The agreement with Brazil, negotiated during the latter part of 1934, was the first arranged by Chile with another American Republic.

At the close of December 1934, a new agreement with Germany was put into effect provisionally, pending ratification by the congresses of both nations. In passing it may be noted that in a recent year before these treaties went into effect, the 13 nations with which Chile has compensation treaties supplied approximately 36 percent of Chile's total imports, and took from Chile about 32 percent of the Republic's exports. Statistics of Chilean foreign trade for the first 10 months of 1934 show that in that period, during which the treaties were in full effect, these nations supplied 25 percent of Chile's imports, and took 17 percent of Chilean exports. Thus, while the foreign trade of Chile as a whole during 1933 and 1934 showed considerable improvement over the low point touched in 1932, trade declined sharply with those nations with which compensation treaties had been negotiated.

The Chilean budget for the 1935 fiscal (calendar) year, estimates revenues at 1,014 million pesos, and expenditures at about the same figure. Principal items in the budget of expenditures include 285 million pesos for national defense, 206 for the Interior Department, 165 for public instruction, and 155 million for promotion. No sums are included in the budget of expenditures for public debt service, as service of both internal and external indebtedness is now handled by the Public Debt Amortization Bureau, through revenues especially segregated for that purpose. In comparison with the budget for 1935, that adopted for 1934 estimated revenues at 830,499,000 pesos, and expenditures at 830,496,000 pesos.

For the first 11 months of 1934, actual revenues were reported at 833 million pesos, and actual expenditures at 795 million. In the corresponding period of 1933, revenues had reached a total of 820 million pesos, and expenditures 794 million pesos.

The partial resumption of Chile's foreign debt service was provided for in a decree promulgated on January 31, 1935. This decree provides that beginning January 1, 1935, receipts of the Government from its share in the profits of the Nitrate and Iodine Sales Corporation, and revenues obtained from companies operating copper mines in Chile will go to form part of the revenues of the Public Debt Amortization Bureau, which is in charge of the public debt service. It will be seen from the foregoing that the Chilean government has adopted the position that foreign debt service will be paid in the amount that purchases by foreign countries of nitrates, iodine and copper, permit such service to be paid. Thus, as foreign purchases of these commodities increase, greater sums will be available for public debt service.

Further, of the sums made available to the bureau for foreign debt service, half will be used to pay interest on the debt, and half for amortization of the principal. On the basis of the revenues now being received by the bureau, interest at the rate of approximately

one-half of 1 percent will be paid on the external debt. The decree provides that those bondholders accepting the plan, and accepting interest payments at the reduced rate, thereby relinquish all claims to further interest payments on those coupons on which the reduced interest is paid, and also thereby subject themselves to the terms of the law as regards future payments. This is one of the features of the decree to which the greatest objection has been raised by foreign bondholders. It might also be mentioned that considerable objection has been raised to the decree because the action of the Chilean Government was unilateral, and foreign bondholders were not consulted in the preparation of the plan. Regarding those bondholders who do not assent to the plan, the decree provides that "the sums reserved for the payment of interest on those bonds whose holders have not accepted the form of service which this law establishes shall be used to increase the funds which are to be applied to redemption or amortization from the moment in which the President of the Republic so determines." Thus it would appear that those bondholders not assenting to the plan may be in the position of not receiving any interest payments. Early in 1935 Chilean financial missions visited the United States and Europe in connection with the operation of the debt service plan, the revision of which is under consideration.

The Chilean public debt as of December 31, 1933, has been reported as follows:

(In Chilean pesos of 6 d):

Consolidated debt.....	2, 430, 829, 002. 29
Banking advances.....	357, 694, 161. 89
Accumulated deficit.....	38, 309, 896. 52
Total.....	2, 826, 833, 060. 70

(In Chilean pesos of current value):

Consolidated debt.....	1, 196, 891, 561. 67
Banking advances.....	43, 151, 174. 16
Accumulated deficit.....	25, 518, 331. 72
Total.....	1, 265, 561, 067. 55

THE CONTROL OF EXCHANGE IN COSTA RICA

The exchange control system of Costa Rica has been modified by a law issued by President Jiménez on February 23, 1935.¹ A *Junta de Control de Exportación de Productos*, dependent on and maintained by the Banco Internacional de Costa Rica, has been appointed to see that the foreign exchange obtained by exporters through the sale of their products is brought to Costa Rica, and to grant authorizations for the purchase of exchange to those who need it to fulfill

¹ *La Gaceta*, San José, Feb. 27 and April 9, 1935.

commercial engagements, meet family obligations, pay educational expenses abroad, or use for similar purposes. The junta will also authorize the purchase of exchange for remittance of interest and dividends on foreign investments in industry or agriculture, provided the investment has been made after January 20, 1933.

Exchange may be purchased by private banking institutions but may be sold only to the Ministry of Finance or to persons authorized by the junta to acquire it, up to the total amount authorized. The banks are obliged to sell the exchange which they have purchased at a rate of not more than 2 points above the cost to the bank of all the exchange purchased during the month. The two points are based on the colon-dollar rate, and do not include the usual interest and discounts on time drafts. The banks are authorized to apply the exchange purchased to the payment of foreign drafts held for collection, provided proper authority therefor has been previously issued by the junta. For legal purposes the average of the buying rates of the purchasing banks is to be set daily by the junta as the official rate.

Exporters and others who have foreign drafts in their possession must report them to the junta and may sell them only to the Ministry of Finance, to banking institutions, or to persons who have been authorized to purchase. Holders must sell their drafts within 60 working days from the date they receive the bill of sale, in the case of consignment shipments, or from the day on which they receive the draft, in other cases.

The Banco Internacional de Costa Rica is obliged to buy all foreign drafts offered to it at the rate of 4.50 colones to the dollar, provided that in the opinion of the director of the bank the drawees are solvent and the drafts present sufficient guarantees. The drafts thus acquired are to be sold to persons holding permits to buy whenever this is required by the needs of the market or to avoid wide fluctuations in rates. The Banco Internacional is authorized to issue bank notes for the purchase of drafts. Whenever it sells any of the exchange purchased, however, it must withdraw from circulation an equivalent amount of notes.

BRAZILIAN COMMERCIAL ARBITRATION COMMISSION

The Pan American Union announces that the first of the local committees which the Inter-American Commercial Arbitration Commission is establishing in the American Republics has been organized in Brazil. Its members are Dr. José Nabuco and Sr. J. M. Fernández, members of the Inter-American Commercial Arbitration Commission; Dr. Juan Albertotti, president, Argentine Chamber of Commerce of Brazil; Dr. Heitor Beltrão, secretary, Commercial

Association of Rio de Janeiro; Stevens B. Danford, Esq., president, American Chamber of Commerce, Rio de Janeiro; Exmo. Sr. Raul de Araujo Maia, prominent coffee merchant; Maxwell Jay Rice, Esq., secretary, American Chamber of Commerce, Rio de Janeiro; Sr. José Salgado Scarpa, president, Commercial Association of Rio de Janeiro; Sr. Abelardo Vergueiro Cezar, rapporteur of the budget for foreign affairs in the House of Representatives. The names of additional members to be added to the committee will be announced later.

The Inter-American Commercial Arbitration Commission was organized in September 1934 in accordance with a resolution of the Seventh International Conference of American States. The first step in the establishment of such a system of inter-American commercial arbitration is the plan for the organization of a local committee in each of the American Republics. Such committees will try to facilitate the adoption of the standards of arbitration procedure approved by the Seventh International Conference of American States, to promote the establishment of Inter-American Tribunals with permanent panels of arbitrators who will function under the standard rules of the commission, and in general to conduct educational work for the development of commercial arbitration in the respective Republics.

The headquarters of the committee for Brazil are at the Associação Commercial of Rio de Janeiro.

THE FOREIGN COMMERCE POLICY ADVISORY BOARD OF URUGUAY

A Foreign Commerce Advisory Board (*Junta Asesora de Economía Exterior*) has been created in Uruguay to advise the Executive and the Bank of the Republic on the negotiation of agreements with foreign governments and public and private entities relative to the fixing of import quotas and the allocation of exchange. The board is part of the administrative machinery of the Uruguayan Economic and Financial Readjustment Law which provides for the creation of an Imports and Exchange Commission charged with the fixing of import quotas by quantities and classes of goods under a plan to pay for imports by allocating a minimum of 75 percent of the exchange derived from exports to each country, the balance to be reserved for servicing public and private debts, and other transfers of funds. The chairman of the board is a representative of the Ministry of Finance, and its members representatives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Ministry of Industries, the Bank of the Republic, and the Imports and Exchange Commission.

HIGHWAY CONSTRUCTION IN ARGENTINA

The construction of highways in Argentina has made great progress since the National Highway Law providing for a definite construction program supported by a continuous highway fund and coordinating Federal and Provincial road building went into effect two years ago.¹ On December 31, 1934, the National Highway Bureau reported that during 1933 and 1934 136 road projects had been completed at a cost of 21,246,000 paper pesos and that 119 projects costing 41,791,000 paper pesos were under construction. At that time 186 projects had also been approved for immediate construction at a cost of 48,318,000 paper pesos.

The work completed on December 31, 1934, represents the construction of 1,427 miles of highway; of which 1,186 miles were earth surfaced, 108 miles of improved earth, and 133 miles of high type pavement; as well as the erection of 134 concrete, 4 timber, and 3 steel bridges with a total length of 9,632 feet.

The projects under construction and approved comprise 2,902 miles of earth roads, 619 miles of gravel surfaced roads, and 731 miles paved with high type surfaces, a total of 4,252 miles. The projects also include the construction of 445 bridges—381 of concrete, 50 of timber, and 14 of steel—with a total length of 38,123 feet.

AGRICULTURAL COLONIZATION IN CHILE

With the appointment of Señor Arturo Lyon Peña as chairman of the board of directors of the *Caja de Colonización Agrícola* (Agricultural Colonization Fund), announced recently by the Ministry of Foreign Relations, the Republic of Chile has officially launched her land settlement project from which—to use the words of the Santiago daily, *El Mercurio*—"considerable benefit is expected, not only in the way of increased agricultural wealth, but also through an improved state of social security in the country."

The colonization law,² as signed and promulgated by President Arturo Alessandri, establishes this *Caja* as an autonomous institution with a capital of 100,000,000 pesos to be supplied by the State out of its ordinary revenues in four yearly payments of 25,000,000 pesos. The Chief Executive is authorized to float an internal loan of not more than 300,000,000 pesos, guaranteed by the State, at interest not to exceed 6 per cent per annum, with a yearly amortization of

¹ For a detailed analysis of the Argentine Highway Law see "Argentina Plans Good Roads" in the February 1933 issue of the BULLETIN.

² *Diario Oficial de la República de Chile*, February 16, 1935, Law No. 5604.

not less than 1 per cent. In the placing of this loan, which is to furnish the bulk of the financing fund, preference must be given to the *Cajas de Previsión* (Social Welfare Funds), the respective quotas to be determined by the President. The law will particularly facilitate the acquisition of land in territories south of the Bío-Bío river, in Aysén and on the island of Chiloé, where at least 50 per cent of the funds must be spent.

Private landowners will be exempt from the provisions of this law so long as their properties are kept in a reasonable state of production, but those who neglect their estates run the risk of expropriation at a price not to exceed 10 per cent of the assessed value, the amount to be fixed by experts. The primary idea is, however, to acquire small holdings through direct purchase or at public auction, using expropriation only as a last resort. The President may transfer to the *Caja de Colonización* such lands of the public domain as he shall deem necessary for settlement by or distribution among colonists.

The *Caja* shall divide the lands thus acquired into tracts of not less than 4 nor more than 30 hectares in the irrigated lands north of the Ñuble river; not less than 20 nor more than 100 hectares south of the same river, and not less than 50 nor more than 500 hectares in any unirrigated territory. The value of each farm shall not exceed 50,000 pesos, including a home which must not be worth more than 12,500 pesos. The price of the property shall be paid in yearly instalments, with cumulative amortization of 1 per cent, and subject to interest at the rate of 4 per cent per annum, payment thereof to begin from the second crop-year, in the case of small farming, and from the fourth year if the plantation is used for industrial crops. A deed conferring outright ownership will be given the colonist once he has paid 5 per cent of the price, if the farm is located in the province of Tarapacá or Antofagasta, or in the territory south of the Bío-Bío river; and 10 per cent in the remainder of the Republic. The repayment provisions, which are considered very generous, stretch over periods of from 20 to 60 years, and vary according to the nature of the land, the size and financial status of the families and the colonization efforts they make.

All colonists must be Chilean citizens, married, not less than 20 years old, and must prove that they do not own land of the same or greater area and value than the tract which would be allotted to them. Preference will be given to farming specialists, persons who hold a degree in agronomy or have practical experience in farm work; to government or private employees who have been unemployed for more than one year; to heads of families, etc. In order to encourage the right type of colonists, the government will maintain farming schools which may be attended by prospective settlers.

El Mercurio points to safeguards contained in the law against abuse of the expropriation provisions, which had been the cause of grave apprehension on the part of landowners, and expresses the hope that the colonization measure "will be enforced with the same spirit of social and economic foresight which prompted its enactment, and that it will bear the fruits so fondly desired by a large sector of public opinion."

WOMEN AND FOREIGNERS VOTE IN CHILE

Following the liberal trend evident in most Latin American countries, Chile performed on April 7 a political experiment which is bound to have far-reaching repercussions in the history of the country. For the first time, women and foreigners enjoyed the right to vote in a Chilean election, on a par with the male citizens who theretofore had a monopoly on the democratic franchise, at the same time that municipal autonomy was being restored throughout the Republic.

(See BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, November 1934, for a note on the granting of suffrage to women and foreigners in Chile.)

The reports and comments of the Santiago press reveal the healthful effect that feminine participation had on the voting, particularly in the national capital where the streets, deserted in previous elections, took on a holiday spirit with gay and happy groups of women walking to the polling places. Women and aliens figured prominently in the election boards at Santiago. In one case all but one of the board members were women, while in another the chairman was a Turkish citizen. A Spaniard and an Italian shared chief duties on a registration committee. The franchise is granted to women and foreigners in municipal elections only.

Editorial opinion in Chile lauds the efficiency and high sense of duty displayed by Chilean women in the exercise of their newly acquired rights, and finds them casting their lot "with the forces which stand for progress and for law and order".—F. J. H.

AGRICULTURE IN THE QUITO REFORMATORY FOR MINORS

Señor Guillermo Noboa, who teaches agriculture in the Quito Reformatory for Minors, has sent to the Pan American Union an account of the educational work done in that subject there. Agriculture is considered especially important in an institution whose pupils have city backgrounds because through it the boys grow stronger, are out in the fresh air, acquire good working habits and a fondness for the soil, and gradually achieve a normal outlook upon life.



THE REFORMATORY FOR MINORS, QUITO, ECUADOR.

The present director of the reformatory, Dr. Medardo L. Torres, has encouraged agricultural activities by enlarging the farm portion of the institution and establishing different sections. Some of the work is done collectively, some individually. Each boy is given his own plot of land where he not only grows vegetables and flowers, but also tries out plants not yet acclimated, such as hemp and flax. The students are also taught to use fertilizers, both natural and chemical.

EXHIBITION OF GUATEMALAN TEXTILES AND COSTUMES

From February 16 to March 1, 1935, inclusive, the Guatemalan textiles and costumes collected by Miss Ruth Reeves under the auspices of Carnegie Institution of Washington were shown to the public at an exhibition sponsored by the National Alliance of Art and Industry, New York City. The collection also included pieces lent by Mrs. Oliver G. Ricketson, Miss Millia Davenport, and Miss Honor Spingarn. There were 22 complete costumes on display, and nearly 200 individual pieces, blouses, coats, skirts, trousers, kerchiefs, belts, headbands, and shawls included in the textile exhibit. That the designs hold inspiration for others and are translatable into modern terms was proven by the 35 adaptations by Miss Reeves which were shown with this exhibit and also in a large New York store.

“ COMMERCIAL PAN AMERICA ”

Recent issues of *Commercial Pan America*, the monthly circular in English and Spanish issued by the Section of Conferences of the Pan American Union, have discussed the following topics: January, 1935, *Commercial Policy of the United States and the Montevideo Program*; February, *The Argentine Recovery Program*; March, *Economic and Financial Developments in Latin America in 1934, Part I*; April, *Economic and Financial Developments in Latin America in 1934, Part II*; and May, *The Pan American Commercial Conference of Buenos Aires*. Copies of these mimeographed circulars are distributed upon request.

BRIEF NOTES

WINE REGULATING BOARD OF ARGENTINA

A Wine Regulating Board has been created in Argentina. The board, whose members are to be appointed by the President, will be aided by an honorary advisory committee, to be composed of representatives of the National Bank, the National Mortgage Bank, the wine-producing Provinces and Territories of the Republic, and organizations interested in the wine industry. The board is empowered to adopt the measures it deems advisable to prevent the national production of wine from exceeding the normal requirements of the population. The Chief Executive is authorized to spend not over 30,000,000 paper pesos to carry out the measures recommended by the board. The board is composed of Dr. Rafael Güevara, Dr. Máximo Young, and Señor Emilio N. Coni. The advisory committee provided for by the law was appointed on January 1, 1935, by President Justo; it consists of 14 members.

PERUVIAN COTTON PRODUCTION AND EXPORT IN 1934

The production of cotton in Peru during 1934 has been estimated at 1,591,568 quintals, valued at 89,000,000 soles. Of this amount 63,301 tons, valued at 81,715,579 soles, were exported, an increase of over 10,000 tons more than in the record year 1927. Nearly five-sixths of the total exported were of the Tanguis variety developed in Peru.

BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN SÃO PAULO

Statistics given out by the Commercial Association of São Paulo and published in *Wileman's Brazilian Review* show that the construction undertaken in that city during 1934 was valued at 170,453

contos as compared with 115,209 contos in 1933. The total floor space of these buildings amounted to 775,893 square meters (8,351,601 square feet), an increase of almost 50 percent over the preceding year.

AGRARIAN CENTER OPENED IN MEXICO CITY

The Agrarian Center (Casa del Agrarista) was opened on January 6, 1935, to provide lodging, medical service, barber shop, baths, lectures, and cultural and athletic programs for provincial farmers (*campesinos*) arriving at the capital to attend to business having to do with agriculture. Admittance to the center is obtained by the presentation of a pass, issued by the chief clerk's office of the Agrarian Bureau to all requesting it and showing proper credentials.

THE NATIONAL DISTRICT OF THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

The National District, an independent political and judicial entity, was inaugurated on January 1, 1935, in accordance with laws no. 745 of September 5 and 765 of October 16, 1934. The District is composed of all but five sections of the former commune of Santo Domingo.

COMMUNITY AGRICULTURAL BOARDS IN THE DOMINION REPUBLIC

On December 6, 1934, President Trujillo of the Dominican Republic approved regulations for the functioning of Community Boards for the Protection of Agriculture. These boards, established by Law no. 762 of October 11, 1934, are to protect agriculture, direct and promote all agricultural work in their jurisdiction, and help solve any problems arising from the leasing of land for agricultural purposes or from the control and distribution of water for irrigation.

HOMESTEAD LAW IN THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

Law no. 758, signed by President Trujillo on October 9, 1934, granted to the President power to dispose of public lands to groups of not less than 10 settlers under specified conditions. Everyone to whom a homestead is allotted must cultivate it under the direction of the Department of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce for five years, at the conclusion of which, if all terms of the contract have been observed, title to the land will be transferred to him. Besides regulating the size and conditions of the grants, the law provides for homestead groups established near the border and on private estates.

TWO INTER-AMERICAN GIFTS OF BOOKS TO PERU

At the suggestion of the Venezuelan Minister to Peru, and with the support of the representatives of Latin American Republics and of Spain, it was planned to organize and present to the city of

Lima on the 400th anniversary of its founding a library composed of books by outstanding authors of the respective countries. The selection from Venezuela, some 400 volumes in a handsome mahogany bookcase, comprised works of literature, law, medicine, and other fields of human knowledge, as well as publications of learned societies.

On February 1, 1935, according to a report from the American embassy in Peru, a gift of over 200 volumes was formally presented to the University of San Marcos. This gift, which was arranged by Dr. Stephen P. Duggan, director of the Institute of International Education, Inc., was made possible by a grant from the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. The books, all of which are by American authors and in English, include among their subject matter literature, music, biography, history, law, medicine, science, archaeology, and religion.

REGULATIONS FOR THE MEAT PRODUCTS INDUSTRY IN VENEZUELA

A decree signed on December 6, 1934 by President J. V. Gómez of Venezuela contained regulations for the conditions under which factories or other meat plants must operate, the sanitary regulations to be observed, and rules for the inspection of meats and packing, and the labeling of packaged goods.

INDUSTRIAL CENSUS IN MEXICO

On April 10, 1935, the second industrial census of Mexico was taken, and many industries not included in that of 1930 were added. In 1930 there were 48,850 industrial plants listed; they employed 320,000 persons, had an annual payroll of 181,061,777 pesos, and their annual production was valued at 900,000,000 pesos. The 1935 census will include the petroleum, mining, and metallurgy industries, formerly omitted, and will provide full data on each industrial plant in the country whose yearly output is valued at more than 10,000 pesos.

NECROLOGY

ALFREDO ASCARRUNZ.—On January 1, 1935, Dr. Alfredo Ascarrunz, who was distinguished as a lawyer, journalist, statesman, and diplomat, died in La Paz at the age of 67. He began his career in the Ministry of the Treasury and Industry, and for a period was attached to the legation in France and Belgium. On his return to Bolivia he joined the editorial staff of *El Imparcial*, a newspaper founded by his brother. Later he went to Lima as secretary of the legation there. Again in Bolivia, he was a member of the Chamber of Deputies, and held several cabinet portfolios, including that of Foreign Affairs. During the discussion of the boundary question between Peru and Bolivia in Buenos Aires, he served as a member of the Bolivian commission. In his diplomatic career in America he represented his country as Minister to Peru and to Ecuador, Colombia and Venezuela.

RONALD DE CARVALHO.—Not long after the decease of Maximiliano Coelho Netto and Humberto de Campos, another great literary figure of Brazil disappeared with the death of Ronald de Carvalho on February 15, 1935, at the age of 42. His reputation as a writer of prose, poetry, and criticism was based on a discerning sensitiveness always evident in his works, which were known in Europe and throughout America. In 1914 Senhor Carvalho entered the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, where his gifts brought him increasingly responsible positions, culminating in an appointment as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary which, however, he was unable to accept because of an invitation to the post of Secretary to the Presidency of the Republic. In 1923 he visited Mexico as guest of honor of the Republic, where his lectures at the University of Mexico and in other cities were received most enthusiastically. At the time of his death, Senhor Carvalho was a member of the Brazilian Institute of Geography and History, the Geographical Society of Rio de Janeiro, the Italian Royal Geographic Society, the Institute of Coimbra, the Hispanic-American Academy of Arts and Sciences, the National Board of History of Uruguay, the Poets Guild of America of Washington, and the Latin Academy of Paris.

FRANCISCO HENRÍQUEZ Y CARVAJAL.—A former President of the Dominican Republic, Dr. Francisco Henríquez y Carvajal, died on February 6, 1935, in Santiago, Cuba. Dr. Henríquez y Carvajal, who was 76 years of age at the time of his death, had had a long and honorable career as an educator, scholar, editor, physician, statesman and diplomat. He rendered great service to his country as a member

of the Cabinet, where he held, at various times, several different portfolios. He represented his country as delegate to the Second Peace Conference at The Hague, in 1907; Minister to Haiti, 1911 and 1931; delegate to the meeting of the Inter-American High Commission in Buenos Aires, 1916; and Minister to France, Italy, Belgium, and Switzerland, 1932. In July 1916 he assumed the office of Provisional President of the Republic, which he held for several months.

JOSÉ MAXIMILIANO OLANO.—A former President of the National Assembly of El Salvador, Dr. José Maximiliano Olano, died in Mexico City on January 19, 1935, as he was returning from the XV International Red Cross conference meeting in Tokyo. Among the positions which Dr. Olano had held in El Salvador were Second Designate to the Presidency of the Republic, Assistant Secretary of Public Instruction, Assistant Secretary of State, rector (president) of the University, and president of the Salvadorean Red Cross.



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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D.C.

L. S. ROWE
Director General

E. GIL BORGES
Assistant Director

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

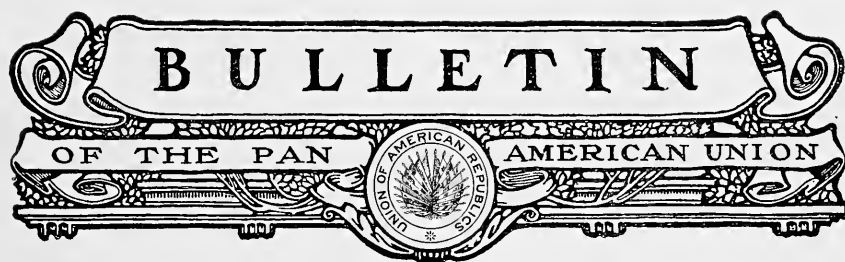
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GENERAL JUSTO RUFINO BARRIOS.

Guatemala celebrates on July 19, 1935, the hundredth anniversary of the birth of Barrios. His bust is numbered among those of the national heroes of the Americas in the Gallery of Patriots of the Pan American Union.



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CENTENARY OF JUSTO RUFINO BARRIOS 1835-1885

By Dr. ADRIÁN RECINOS

Minister of Guatemala in Washington

GUATEMALA celebrates this year the centenary of the birth of one of her most illustrious sons, General Justo Rufino Barrios. A dominant figure in his country's life from 1871 to 1885, Barrios, called by his contemporaries "The Reformer", emancipated his nation from clerical domination, introduced modern progress in the form of railways, highways, telegraphs, schools, hospitals, and advanced laws, and finally sacrificed his life on the altar of the great nationalist ideal—the only one, it has been said, for which one should fight and die in Central America: the union of the five Republics.

Justo Rufino Barrios was born July 19, 1835, in the town of San Lorenzo, in western Guatemala. He attended elementary school in the neighboring city of San Marcos and completed his education in the capital, where he was graduated from the university in law. But since he had an active and restless temperament it was not to be expected that he would resign himself to a life of study or that he would have the patience of a prosecutor. His parents had large agricultural properties on both sides of the Guatemalan-Mexican boundary, and young Barrios preferred to devote his energies to rural labors and amusements. This kind of life permitted him to become acquainted with the needs of the lowly toilers and to appraise the degree of backwardness found in the remote regions of the Republic.

The political situation in Guatemala about 1870 was extremely precarious. General Rafael Carrera had died in 1865, after 25 years of absolute government, maintained by force and his military prestige

and supported by the Catholic clergy and the aristocratic families of the capital whose financial interests he protected. Marshal Vicente Cerna, his successor, tried to continue the same régime, but his character was unsuited to the exercise of a dictatorship and the nation commenced to awaken from its long sleep. The first protesting voices were beginning to be heard among the people and in Congress, until then submissive to the President's will. Prominent members of the Liberal Party were persecuted; Miguel García Granados, a deputy, and some of his colleagues were expelled from the country. García Granados had figured in Guatemalan public life since 1827 and 1828, the period of the civil wars of the Central American Federation. An experienced man of good social and financial position and a brilliant orator, he was considered in 1870 the leader of the opposition party, which in the capital was demanding the adoption of the reforms indispensable for the progress of the country, in accordance with the spirit of the time.

Justo Rufino Barrios was then in Mexico after having taken part in various revolutionary attempts which, although they failed, initiated the young soldier into the tasks of war. García Granados also took refuge in Mexican territory, where he immediately placed himself in contact with Barrios and other Guatemalan refugees and gave himself up completely to preparations for the revolution. With funds carried from Guatemala, he managed to acquire in the United States a large quantity of arms of a new model, which were very effective in the campaign against Cerna. Furthermore, he drew up the proclamations to be issued to the Guatemalan people and immediately assumed the intellectual direction of the enterprise.

Barrios, says one of his biographers, yielded to García Granados the leadership of the expedition but without on that account failing to accept a large part of the dangers and responsibilities of the war.

The opposing forces in the Revolution of 1871 were very unequal. Cerna's government had in its favor a greater number of soldiers and a larger supply of munitions. The revolutionary forces, which on crossing the frontier had less than a hundred men, were strong, however, in the enthusiasm of their members and in the superiority of their arms. Moreover, they enjoyed the favorable opinion of the people in the western part of the country, who soon swelled the ranks and contributed all they had to the triumph of the liberating army. The revolutionary proclamations, composed in eloquent language by García Granados, pointed out to the nation the necessity of replacing the aristocratic régime by a popular and progressive government which would assure social justice.

After a three months' campaign, the victorious revolutionary forces entered the city of Guatemala on June 30, 1871. García Granados

immediately assumed the presidency and Barrios was appointed commandant general of los Altos (the West). The first reforms of the revolutionary government were directed against the Catholic clergy. The Government decreed the expulsion of the Jesuits, the suppression of religious orders and communities, and the secularization of their property. These radical measures produced some disturbances which the revolutionary Government had to suppress energetically until the country was completely pacified. The partisans of the fallen Government found asylum and support in the



THE JUSTO RUFINO BARRIOS STATUE IN GUATEMALA CITY.

This monument in Barrios Plaza was erected by the people of Guatemala in homage to the illustrious leader in the country's development from 1871 to 1885.

neighboring States of El Salvador and Honduras, and Barrios and García Granados had to combat the Governments of those countries to assure the peace not only of Guatemala but also of Central America.

Complementary to the campaign of intellectual liberation carried on by the revolutionary Government, a decree was issued on March 15, 1872, which recognized liberty of conscience and the free exercise of all religions in Guatemala and guaranteed the protection of the State for the exercise of these rights.

One year later, the remnants of the opposition having been conquered on the field of battle, García Granados, desiring that the

country should freely choose the man to govern it, called an election for the president of the Republic. Barrios was elected by a great majority and inaugurated in June, 1873. From that time on the work of reform continued with still greater energy. Barrios, because of his victorious campaigns, his activity and his rectitude, already had the support of the rising generation and the respect of the whole world. As Dr. Ramón A. Salazar has written, "García Granados, the man of law and sentiment, had to give way to the young chieftain, the man of energy and revolutionary audacity."

General Barrios had the gift of surrounding himself with the most competent men of his time and of trusting them to accomplish the most important and lasting part of his work. Through the cooperation of these enlightened men he bestowed on the country advanced legislation which replaced the heterogeneous collection of ancient Spanish laws—laws of the Indies and of the colonial government. Bringing into the country distinguished teachers from Spain and Spanish America, he modernized public instruction, founded a military school of first rank, and established normal, vocational and secondary schools for both boys and girls. He multiplied elementary schools throughout the Republic, proclaiming liberty of instruction and making public primary education free, compulsory, and lay.

In the material realm he constructed highways and telegraph lines uniting the cities, ports, and productive districts of the country. He joined the capital and the port of San José on the Pacific by the first railway built in the country; he founded hospitals and gave concessions for the establishment of new banks; he distributed lands for the extension of agriculture; he opened new ports to stimulate foreign trade and, in short, he gave a new life to the nation.

The progress attained by Guatemala in the material and intellectual fields did not benefit that country alone. The neighboring States also felt the powerful influence of the reforms carried out by Barrios who, when his government ended, enjoyed the admiration of many young men in the other Central American countries.

Although new legislation had become effective since 1877, there was lacking a constitution sanctioning the principles and guarantees recognized in various laws issued by the Executive and establishing the permanent norms by which the government of the Republic should be guided. Barrios gave his enthusiastic support to the formulation of a new constitution, and this was drawn up by a Constituent Assembly in December 1879.

Barrios was elected the first constitutional President, and although he refused the position the Assembly insisted that he accept. The question of the boundary with Mexico, which was being discussed about this time, took on an aspect threatening to friendly relations

and peace³ between the two countries. Diplomatic negotiations designed to obtain the submission of this delicate question to the arbitration of President Arthur were carried on with the government of the United States. Barrios, desiring to hasten the arrangement, went to Washington in 1882 and with the Mexican plenipotentiary agreed on the basis of the treaty, signed a little later at the Mexican capital, which definitely fixed the boundary between the two countries.

The fruits of 10 years of strenuous labor might well have satisfied the chief executive of Guatemala. Peace reigned; agriculture, commerce, and industry were in a flourishing condition, great works of material progress gave a modern stamp to the country, education had become general, Guatemala was enjoying real welfare and prosperity and could envisage the future with confidence. But the restless spirit of Barrios was not satisfied. He aspired to new enterprises, to wider and more significant campaigns. Faithful to the credo of the Liberal Party, which has always been the champion of Central American union, the Guatemalan leader worked during the last years of his life for the reestablishment of the Federal Republic. The constitution of 1879, based on the same principle, stated the desire of Guatemala to join its sister Republics whenever the reconstitution of the larger nation, on sensible and favorable bases, was proposed. In a document dated February 24, 1883, Barrios said: "It is not new for me to be concerned with the thought of the reconstitution of the Central American Union, sundered in days of unhappy memory. For long I have cherished this idea, because I believe that it contains the solution of the most interesting problems of our future and that it is the only foundation on which can be raised the improved structure of these Republics, not only in the material and economic field, but also in the political and social order."

To guarantee the peace of Central America and the development of the ideas of liberty and union, Barrios counted on the support of the governments of El Salvador and Honduras, which he had helped to set up. The liberals in these and the other Central American States carried on intensive propaganda for the Union. Barrios and President Zaldívar of El Salvador sent representatives from their respective countries who officially proposed the Union to Honduras, Nicaragua and Costa Rica. They sought to obtain the assembly of a congress which would decree the Union and organize the five Republics into a federated state. This project failed, but the movement in favor of union gained more adherents. The opposition of two of the sister Republics and the hostile measures taken by one of them against the partisans of union convinced Barrios and the Unionists who supported him that an appeal to force would be necessary to create what could not be achieved by friendly consent.

Barrios placed his confidence in the governments of El Salvador and Honduras, which had offered to second him in the enterprise, and above all he counted on the Unionist sentiment in those States. Impatient to put into effect the grandiose idea for which the most distinguished men in Central America had fought, he issued a decree on February 28, 1885, in which he proclaimed the Union, assumed the leadership of operations to bring it about, and convoked a General Assembly which should draw up the constitution and organize the government of the Central American Republic.

The campaign was begun shortly afterwards with the help of thousands of volunteer troops from Guatemala and the cooperation of numerous citizens of the other States. The government of Honduras mobilized its army in favor of the Union. The government of El Salvador, which had offered its support to the enterprise but at the last moment undoubtedly feared the preponderance of Guatemala and of Barrios, refused its aid and placed an army on its frontier. Nicaragua and Costa Rica likewise prepared to resist the Unionist army. Barrios invaded El Salvador, obtained the first victories of the campaign, and advanced to attack the city of Chalchuapa, where the greater part of the Salvadorean army was to be found.

The battle was fought in good order. Barrios, incapable of restraining his impetuous ardor, attacked the enemy fortifications personally, at the head of his army, and fell mortally wounded on April 2, 1885. With his death, the campaign for the Union ended, but Barrios wrote at Chalchuapa the most glorious page of its history.

The Reformer of Guatemala has been fully discussed—exalted by some more than justice permits, attacked by others to the extent of denying his work and condemning the principles which he placed in operation during his rapid and brilliant career. The impartial historian must recognize that Barrios' work was apparently contradictory in nature; that he had to use tyranny to establish democratic institutions in his country. He himself refused the title of liberal which his friends gave him and recognized that sometimes he had had to sacrifice liberal principles in order to dominate the enemies of his administration. "Sometimes," he said in his resignation in 1880, "I was obliged to cut and to burn; and when circumstances demanded it I conquered my repugnance to cutting and to burning." In another document he declared that his mission had been that of a dictator whose rôle did not permit him to give liberty, but only to prepare for it.

When one meditates on the magnitude of the regenerative labors of Justo Rufino Barrios, one understands that only a will of iron could have carried them to completion in so short a time. Barrios failed in his noble attempt to reconstitute the Central American Federation, but he triumphed in all his other enterprises. His works did not vanish immediately after his death, because they had a real value and a wide cultural scope. They were works of civilization, which spread to the neighboring States and influenced the future. The people of Guatemala venerate his memory and are therefore rendering him national homage on the centenary of his birth. His Unionist ideals have been recognized by those who fought against him in 1885, and therefore his name still lives in the hearts of Central American youth.



CESSATION OF HOSTILITIES IN THE CHACO

FOREWORD

By L. S. ROWE, Ph. D., LL. D.,

Director General of the Pan American Union

THE signing of protocols by the Bolivian and Paraguayan Ministers for Foreign Affairs, Señor don Tomás Manuel Elío and Señor don Luis Riart, on June 12, 1935, and the subsequent ratification of these protocols by the respective Governments brings to a close the long and tragic struggle in the Chaco. The results secured through the efforts of the mediators at Buenos Aires are a matter of sincere rejoicing to all the countries of the Pan American Union.

The proceedings of the Seventh International Conference of American States held at Montevideo in 1933 demonstrated clearly, if further proof were necessary, that the conflict raging in the Chaco was a matter affecting the entire continent and that the governments of the American Republics keenly felt their responsibility to bring the conflict to a close.

The protocols signed at Buenos Aires honor both Bolivia and Paraguay and constitute an additional demonstration of the fact that everything affecting the peace and tranquillity of the American continent is a matter of serious concern to each and every member of the Pan American Union.

The text of the protocols follows:

[The High Contracting Parties agree:]

ARTICLE I

To request the mediating group¹ kindly to beg His Excellency, the President of the Argentine nation, immediately to convene the Peace Conference for the following purposes:

1st, solemnly to ratify the present pact.

2nd, to settle the practical questions which may arise in the execution of the measures of security adopted for the cessation of hostilities.

3rd, to promote the settling of differences between Bolivia and Paraguay by direct agreement between the parties; it being understood that, should the direct negotiations fail, Bolivia and Paraguay assume through this pact the obligation to settle the Chaco dispute by means of juridical arbitration, forthwith designating the Permanent Court of International Justice of The Hague as arbitrator.

The peace conference will terminate the direct negotiations when in its opinion the time shall have arrived to declare the impossibility of reaching thereby a definite solution; in this event, it will proceed to the question of an arbitral com-

¹ Composed of representatives of Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Peru, Uruguay, and the United States under the chairmanship of Dr. Carlos Saavedra Lamas, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Argentina.

promis to be concluded between the parties, the peace conference being unable to terminate its functions as long as the arbitral compromis is not definitely agreed upon.

4th, to promote, when it is deemed opportune, the agreement between the parties relating to the exchange and repatriation of prisoners bearing in mind the practices and principles of international law.

5th, establishment of a system of transit, trade and navigation, having in view the geographical position of the parties.

6th, to promote facilities and agreements of various kinds, designed to encourage the development of the belligerent countries.

7th, the peace conference will form an international commission which will render an opinion on the responsibilities of any order and any kind arising from the war; if the conclusions of this opinion are not accepted by one of the parties, the Permanent Court of International Justice of The Hague will definitively settle the question.

The governments of the Republics of Bolivia and Paraguay pledge themselves to obtain legislative approval of the present pact within a term of 10 days as from the date of its signature.

ARTICLE II

The definite cessation of hostilities based on the present positions of the belligerent armies.

The positions of the conflicting armies are fixed as follows:

(a) A 12-day truce is agreed upon in order that a neutral military commission, composed of representatives of the mediating nations, may fix intermediate lines between the positions of the belligerent armies. The truce will begin at midnight, meridian of Córdoba, on the day on which the neutral military commission, having already arrived at the field of action, considers itself ready to begin its mission.

The neutral military commission will hear the belligerent military authorities in order to determine the line of separation of the armies, and it will decide cases of discrepancies; once its mission is fulfilled it will so inform the Peace Conference.

(b) The time limit for the truce established under clause (a) having expired, the peace conference will extend it until the final execution of the measure of security provided for in article III.

(c) The neutral military commission will decide as to the modifications which the experience of the line of separation of the armies may make advisable, after hearing the military authorities of the belligerents.

(d) During the truce and its extension, the lines of separation of the armies will be maintained under the guarantees of the Peace Conference, for which purpose the neutral military commission will exercise vigilance and control over them.

ARTICLE III

The adoption of the following measures of security; 1st, the demobilization of the belligerent armies within a term of 90 days, as from the date of the fixing of the lines of separation of the armies to which reference is made in article II in the manner to be established by the neutral military commission, after hearing the belligerent military authorities, and up to the limit fixed in the following clause. 2nd, the reduction of military effectives to the maximum of 5,000 men. 3rd, the obligation not to make new purchases of war material other than that indispensable for replacement, until the conclusion of the treaty of peace. 4th, in signing the present pact in the presence of the mediators, the parties make a pledge of "non-aggression."

The neutral military commission will be charged with the control of the execution of the measures of security until their total completion. Once these are fulfilled, the Peace Conference will declare the war to be terminated.

Once the execution of the foregoing military securities and guarantees is initiated on the field of operations, which measures must be totally carried out within the maximum term of 90 consecutive days, the study of the differences will also be initiated at the same time, and the Peace Conference will exercise the functions specified in article I.

ARTICLE IV

The declaration of August 3, 1932, regarding territorial acquisitions, is recognized by the belligerents.

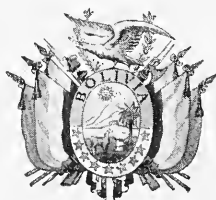
ARTICLE V

In homage to humane sentiments of the belligerents and mediators, firing is suspended as from noon, June 14, meridian of Córdoba.

In virtue of which the present protocol is subscribed by mutual agreement, jointly with the representatives of the mediating States, sealed and signed on the date and place mentioned above.

ADDITIONAL PROTOCOL

In order to give effect to the provisions of article V of the protocol signed on this date, the high contracting parties request the mediation commission to send the neutral military commission to the scene of operations immediately. Upon its arrival it shall arrange for the suspension of firing provided for in the said article V and shall start the work of drawing the line separating the armies, stipulated in article II, paragraph (a), of the principal protocol. Upon the ratification of the principal protocol by the Congresses of Paraguay and Bolivia within the period of 10 days provided therefor, the provisional suspension of firing to which this additional protocol refers shall be automatically transformed into the preliminary truce with a view to the definite cessation of hostilities provided for in article II, paragraph (a), of the principal protocol; if on the contrary such ratification does not result, suspension of firing referred to in article V above mentioned shall cease ipso facto.



WHAT THE AMERICAS ARE DOING FOR THE WOMAN WORKER¹

By MARY ANDERSON

Director, Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor

THE woman worker has been thrown into sharp relief against the changing civilization of our modern world. Caught in the throes of conflicting economic and social problems, she has never had her status and functions so clearly defined as have men. In recent years the widespread system of mechanization, the world-wide depression, and national recovery programs involving a back-to-the-home movement in certain European countries have all served to focus attention on wage-earning women—their needs, activities, and outlook.

Let us concentrate on the woman worker of the Western Hemisphere, in the comparatively new world of the Americas, where the situation differs considerably from that across the seas.

To give a completely detailed presentation of all measures taken by each American country to safeguard in every way the interests of wage-earning women would require at least a volume. Our objective is, rather, to paint with broad sweeps of the brush the basic efforts of the important industrial and commercial autonomous countries on this side of the globe to establish legal standards for women workers and to enact general labor legislation of benefit to women as well as men.

Why do we find special labor laws for women? Primarily because a woman worker is not only an individual seeking a livelihood for self or others as is a man, she is not only a citizen entitled to various rights and privileges as is a man, but she has certain important functions and services to render which a man does not. In other words, she is a mother and home maker, actually or potentially. She is the producer not only of economic goods but of future citizens. "America will be as strong as her women"—this is the caption on a poster of a mother and child, which has been extensively circulated by the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, and this slogan might well be cited as the basic reason behind labor legislation for women.

¹ In case of any serious omissions in the following discussion, the difficulties attendant upon the handling of a subject of such great scope and complexity and the unavoidable delay in receiving information in regard to recently enacted laws are responsible.

WOMEN AT CHILDBIRTH

International efforts to build up labor standards include several special measures in the interests of women workers. Among the original draft conventions of the International Labor Organization drawn up at its first meeting in Washington in 1919 are two, those on childbirth and night work, that belong definitely in this category.

The first stipulates that women must not be employed in industry or commerce six weeks after childbirth and shall have the right to leave their employment for six weeks before childbirth on presentation of a medical certificate. They shall be paid maternity benefits. The convention specifies that it is illegal for the employer to dismiss a woman during absence from her job because of childbirth, and it allows her two periods daily in which to nurse her baby after her return to work. The convention stipulates, further, that a woman, during the period when she is forced to be off the pay roll, be paid sufficient benefits for the full and healthy maintenance of herself and child, such income to be provided out of public funds or by means of a system of insurance. It also provides for the free attendance of a doctor or certified midwife. Altogether, the convention requires for women adequate provisions at the most crucial time of their lives, the maternity period, including periods of pregnancy, confinement, and nursing.

That the International Labor Organization adopted at its beginning such provisions as part of an effort to build up international labor standards is significant. This is the one type of labor legislation that obviously can apply only to women. It is designed to safeguard not so much the individual woman as the interests of the race. There is grave danger that women—biologically charged with child-bearing and rearing—who through force of circumstances must also assume breadwinning as a major function may fail to take proper care of themselves and their children during the childbirth period, through lack of knowledge or through economic stress. If the law is considered from the viewpoint of the woman as an individual worker, it is seen that it tends to guarantee her a job and income.

As we call the roster of the Latin American countries in respect to the ratification of the childbirth convention, we see Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Nicaragua, and Uruguay already in line, while Paraguay has taken the first step, having recommended ratification. The countries on this list which have enacted special legislation for women at childbirth, more or less commensurate with the convention, are Brazil, Chile, Uruguay, and Cuba, which has been particularly progressive in this respect. Argentina, which for a number of years has had a law with some of the convention's provisions, now shows "in progress or preparation" legislation that will bring the standards in that country up to those of the convention. Though

Bolivia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Peru, and Panama have not ratified the convention they have national legislation on this subject somewhat below the convention standards. Mexico has not ratified the convention as yet but its Federal Labor Law, adopted in 1931, contains provisions covering every woman engaged in wage-paid employment, prohibiting employment for 8 days before and one month after childbirth, or for a longer time in case of incapacity for work due to sickness; and requiring that a woman's post be kept open and that she be paid full wages during her legal absence and after her return allowed two half-hour breaks daily during the whole nursing period. In Venezuela the only childbirth law prohibits the employment of pregnant women on harmful work and requires time for a working mother to nurse her child.

As far back as 1923, Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica made an international agreement for the protection of women during the maternity period, to establish compulsory insurance or provide by some other means the necessary funds for granting benefits for four weeks before and six weeks after childbirth, provided the mother abstains from any work that might injure her health. Guatemala and El Salvador have since enacted specific laws on the subject, the legislation of the former conforming more or less to the convention on the subject and the law of the latter country covering women in commercial undertakings only.

The United States, which became a member of the International Labor Organization only in 1934, has a constitutional difficulty not only in regard to ratification of the conventions but in passing Federal labor laws, since the power to enact labor legislation rests almost entirely with the States. Consideration of labor laws within its borders, therefore, must be handled by the more cumbersome method of analysis of such action by the individual 48 States and the Territories as well. In regard to legislation for the maternity period the United States can point to but little progress. Only six States and the Philippine Islands have such legislation, merely prohibiting the employment of women immediately before and after childbirth, the prohibited period varying considerably.

NIGHT WORK

The second draft convention for the protection of women adopted at the 1919 Washington meeting of the International Labor Organization stipulates that women should not work in "industrial undertakings" at night. For the purpose of this convention the term "night" signifies a period of at least 11 consecutive hours, including the interval between 10 p. m. and 5 a. m. In 1934 this convention

was revised to allow under certain circumstances the substitution of the period from 11 p. m. to 6 a. m. for the 10 p. m. to 5 a. m. stretch and to permit in countries devoid of any night-work legislation, prior to their possible adoption of the convention, a prohibitive stretch of only 10 hours instead of 11 for a maximum period of three years. The 1934 revision specifies further that the convention does not apply to women holding responsible positions of management who are not ordinarily engaged in manual work. This clause was inserted to meet the opposition to the whole convention of a group of women employed not in industry but in business and the professions. They feared that the convention which was designed to apply to the industrial or wage-earning woman might check their own freedom.

In general there appears to be a growing trend, in opinion at least, away from night work for both men and women in industries that can do away with it, in view of the increased production methods due to mechanization and the serious problems of unemployment that have confronted practically every industrial country of the world. It might be mentioned in passing that a few of the Latin American countries have prohibited night employment of men as well as women in bakeries or macaroni factories.

In regard to the ratification of the night-work convention, we must limit our consideration to the original convention, since the 1934 revision is still too recent for the necessary action to have been taken. A number of the Latin American countries have ratified the 1919 night-work convention—Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Nicaragua, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Of these the first five have taken the necessary legal steps to put the provisions into effect, Argentina having had such legislation for a decade. Though Uruguay has legislation prohibiting women's employment at night, this is not on a par with the convention. Various regulations forbidding night work for women in some way are also found on the statute books of Bolivia, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama, and Peru. Paraguay has taken an initial step, having recommended the convention for ratification. The various national laws on this subject have certain differences in regard to the prohibited period of work and specify certain exemptions as to occupations.

Mention must also be made of a multilateral agreement, made in 1923, among the five Central American countries—Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica—by which they banned night work for women between 7 p. m. and 5 a. m. with some exemptions. Several of these countries have passed legislation on this subject changing the time somewhat.

In the United States only 16 States and Puerto Rico have enacted laws prohibiting night work for women in certain industries and

occupations; these vary somewhat from State to State. The most usual period during which night work is forbidden is from 10 p. m. to 6. a. m. Two other States limit night work for women to 8 hours a night.

OCCUPATIONS PROHIBITED OR REGULATED FOR WOMEN

Another type of legislation prohibits or regulates the employment of women in certain occupations because such performances are considered dangerous, unhealthful, or heavy work for women or in some instances are thought to involve moral dangers. Authorities have found some occupational diseases to be more dangerous to women than to men.

On two occasions the International Labor Conference took decisions for the purpose of preventing occupational poison in the case of women. In 1919 the decision was put in the form of a recommendation, and not a draft convention, to prohibit the employment of women in certain processes where they would be exposed to lead poisoning, and to regulate the conditions of labor on all processes involving the use of lead compounds. In 1921 a clause was included in the convention which regulates the use of white lead by all persons, prohibiting the employment of women and children at industrial painting involving the use of white lead, sulphate of lead, or other products containing these pigments. To date Chile has ratified this convention and passed the necessary legislation; Cuba has ratified the convention and has legislation in "progress or preparation"; Nicaragua, Colombia, Uruguay, and Venezuela have ratified the convention; and Argentina has recommended the convention for ratification, and prior to this step, had enacted some legal regulations concerning the handling of lead and lead compounds by women. Moreover, Brazil, Ecuador, and Bolivia, though not having taken any action as yet in regard to the convention, can point to national legislation protecting women and children against this form of poisoning.

In the United States only two States—Pennsylvania and New Jersey—have special legislation prohibiting women's employment in handling lead and lead compounds. Use of lead by women may be somewhat further controlled in six States which have boards specifically empowered to regulate the working conditions of women. In addition, a number of States have regulations covering both men and women workers alike aimed at controlling the hazard of lead poisoning.

One of the oldest provisions of labor legislation is that forbidding women to work in mines. Complete prohibition of women's employment underground in mines is found in Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Cuba, Ecuador, Mexico, Nicaragua, Peru, and Venezuela. Peru bans

women from working on the surface as well as underground in mines. In Bolivia and Guatemala underground work is forbidden by law for women under age. In the United States mining as an occupation for women is forbidden by the laws of 17 States in all.

It may also be pointed out that work underground is in some cases indirectly regulated by legislation which prohibits women from engaging in arduous operations in general. In countries and States that do not have laws preventing women's employment in mines, custom and tradition are apt to have ruled out their employment in this capacity.

In regard to other work considered detrimental to women some typical illustrations of national laws along this line will suffice. In Mexico, for example, regulations have been promulgated in accordance with the Federal Labor Act restricting or prohibiting the employment of women in certain occupations considered dangerous, as in establishments using unguarded machinery, in underground or underwater industries, and in specified harmful occupations including those involving contact with noxious chemicals; and restricting women's employment in some other ways—in the carrying of loads, for example.

The recent decree-law adopted by Cuba prohibits women's employment in hazardous occupations, specifically listing certain occupations such as handling poisonous chemicals, manufacturing liquor, lifting heavy weights, greasing or cleaning machinery, and working underground. It is further stipulated that in case of accident or illness proved to be the result of prohibited work the employer is responsible and shall pay 50 per cent of the indemnity in addition to insurance.

Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Ecuador, and Peru, for example, have legislation prohibiting the employment of women in dangerous and unhealthful occupations and empowering competent authorities to make necessary regulations. Chile has a law with a general prohibition against the employment of women on work exceeding their strength. Panama has forbidden their employment in occupations unsuitable to their sex.

In the United States, the situation varies considerably from State to State in the 26 which have prohibitory or regulatory laws regarding the employment of women in any specific occupation. There are six States with a blanket protection of employment of women under detrimental conditions. In five States women in some or all occupations are not allowed to perform tasks that involve the lifting or carrying of heavy weights. Regulations regarding the work of women in core rooms have been set up by five States.

In a few of the United States and in several of the Latin American countries, certain occupations are forbidden to women on the debatable issue of being morally detrimental or dangerous to women.

HOURS OF WORK

Modern civilization has tended more and more to write into labor laws and codes, both national and international, provisions limiting hours of work and setting up a system of minimum-wage rates to prevent workers from being unduly exploited in a competitive, capitalistic society, that is, to prevent their being worked for over-long hours and at starvation wages. The International Labor Organization conventions on these two subjects apply to both men and women as do the laws enacted by practically all of the countries under consideration except the United States, and even this country in its emergency NRA ² program has developed hour and wage legislation covering both sexes.

The limitation of hours of work or the shorter work day and week, with a required rest day, is especially beneficial to women in view of the many who carry the additional job of home maker or mother or both. Incidentally, it may be added that an historical study of hour laws shows that in many countries regulations of working hours for women and young persons to safeguard their interests on a humanitarian basis has proved an entering wedge for the enactment of such legislation for all workers.

There are three International Labor Organization conventions dealing with hours and applying to workers of all ages and both sexes in industrial undertakings. The 1919 convention restricting hours of work in industry to 8 a day and 48 in the week has been ratified by Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Nicaragua, Uruguay, and the Dominican Republic, Paraguay and Brazil having recommended the convention for adoption. The 8-hour day and 48-hour week for industrial workers have been established by national legislation in the first four countries on this list and in Brazil (where 60 hours a week is permitted by agreement between employer and workers). The hour law in Colombia passed in 1934 contains a provision to keep the reform in hours from being accompanied by reduction in wages. Uruguay limits the work day to 8 hours and requires one day of rest in seven, and Mexico has a similar law. Ecuador requires for all employees an 8-hour day and a 6-day week of 48 hours, and

² On May 27, 1935, the Supreme Court rendered a decision holding unconstitutional the code-making provisions of the National Recovery Act, on the grounds that Congress had exceeded its authority in delegating to the President unlimited power to regulate business and industry and that neither the President nor Congress has power to regulate wages and hours of labor in intrastate transactions.

Guatemala has such legislation for wage-earning and salaried employees. El Salvador has established an 8-hour day for all employees, and Costa Rica has an 8-hour day for industrial employees. The law in Peru specifies an 8-hour day for men and women and limits the weekly hours of women to 45. The constitution of Honduras makes the 8-hour day and the 6-day week compulsory. Venezuela has fixed the hours of work for both sexes in industry at 9 a day, and in public undertakings at 8½ a day.

The international convention stipulating an 8-hour day and 48-hour week for employees in commerce and offices, adopted in 1930, has to date been ratified by only Nicaragua, Mexico, and Uruguay, and recommended by Chile, but many of the Latin American countries have national legislation limiting the work day of commercial and office workers to 8 hours. In El Salvador women commercial employees have a 7-hour day.

The regulations for a weekly rest have evolved in the same way as those on hours of work, being applied originally to women and children, but having now in the great majority of countries been extended to workers of both sexes. In 1921 the International Labor Conference adopted the convention providing one day of rest in seven for all workers in industry and a recommendation that a similar regulation cover commercial undertakings. In Latin America since 1928 the legislation on this subject has been steadily improved and extended so as to facilitate its application over as wide a field as possible. The Latin American countries are now tending to establish the weekly rest along the lines practiced for years in many European countries by making it begin at mid-day on Saturday.

In general, State hour legislation in the United States applies to women or minors. However, many States have enacted hour laws to cover men in certain more or less hazardous or unhealthful occupations, in public works, or in operations where the safety and health of the general public is concerned, as in transportation, for example. Analysis of the State hour laws for women shows a wide range in the work day and week and great lack of uniformity among the 43 States that have enacted such laws. Only eight of these States, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico have working hours as short as 8 a day and 48 a week in some industries and occupations, one of these, Oregon, having recently established a 44-hour week for women in needlecraft and in laundries and cleaning and dyeing establishments. It is of interest to point out that New York, the largest industrial State in the country, is among those with the 8-hour day and 48-hour week. On the other hand, 19 States permit a day of 10 hours or more, some of these allowing 60 hours a week or specifying no weekly limit.

One day of rest in seven is required by law in 15 States and the District of Columbia. In two of these one shorter work day in addition to the day of rest is a specific requirement.

The industries and occupations included in the State laws vary greatly. Factories and stores are generally covered, and to a somewhat lesser extent laundries, hotels, restaurants, places of amusement, telephone exchanges, and telegraph, express and transportation offices. In some States women in some or all clerical positions are included.

In addition to State hour legislation many industrial undertakings were covered by the hour provisions of the NRA codes, which were put into force temporarily as a result of the National Industrial Recovery Act, passed by the Congress of the United States in June 1933.

For the first time factory operatives of both sexes all over the country as well as men and women in a number of other occupations were legally safeguarded as to maximum working hours. The vast majority of the codes established the 40-hour week in the industrial field covered by the NRA and specified or strongly implied the 8-hour day as basic. The codes for a few industries set up an even shorter work week; some of these are large woman-employing industries that formerly were characterized by bad sweatshop practices in many plants in the industry.

ANNUAL HOLIDAY WITH PAY

As a relief from the daily grind of a job every worker needs an annual vacation, and there is a growing sentiment that a holiday with pay should be required for industrial as well as salaried employees. In the United States laws providing such benefit for wage earners in industry are non-existent. Federal Government employees, however, are granted by law 15 days of annual leave with pay, while for State employees the situation varies from State to State, a paid vacation being legally provided in some States, while in others it is merely customary. A number of Latin American countries, notably Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Mexico, and Uruguay, have enacted legislation requiring an annual holiday with pay for some or all workers, manual as well as white collar workers in most cases.

WAGES

The development of the machine age for industrial production has brought in its train during recent decades an increasing need of paid employment for women and a decided tendency among unscrupulous employers to pay them less than a living wage. Women who have been forced in growing numbers to earn a livelihood for themselves

and in many cases for dependents as well have suffered from the theory that they work for "pin money" and have been victimized by the double wage standard which encourages the payment of lower wages to women than men for similar work. Because women have a less secure foothold in industry, because they are so often assigned to unskilled jobs, and because they are much less extensively organized, they have not been able to combat such injustices. The need to set by law a bottom level below which their wages can not fall has always been urgent.

Reviewing the history of minimum wage legislation in the world, we find not only that women's need of it has been greater, but that the benefits to women from these laws have also been greater than for men where both sexes have been included in the legislation.

However, there has been a growing conviction that this type of legislation should apply to men and women alike. In general, a greater impetus has been given to the minimum wage movement in a number of countries as a result of the depression, which greatly curtailed the demand for workers, increased unemployment, and precipitated a veritable toboggan slide in wage rates and standards of living. Before the depression, however, in 1928, the International Labor Organization took a definite stand by adopting a convention providing that wage-fixing machinery be created in unorganized and underpaid trades. In addition, a recommendation was adopted calling the attention of ratifying countries to the principles of a living wage for all workers and equal pay for equal work for women as compared with men. Other ways of safeguarding women's interests were recommended, including woman representation on wage boards.

What steps have the Latin American nations taken in respect to this convention and what national laws have they enacted along these lines? Chile has not only ratified it but passed, as early as 1924, legislation requiring a minimum wage for all industries to be fixed by wage committees consisting of employers and workers in the various branches of industry. Mexico has ratified the convention, and the Federal Labor Act of 1931 includes provisions for establishing minimum wages for men and women and equality of wages between the sexes. Colombia, Nicaragua, and Uruguay have ratified the minimum wage convention, and Uruguay passed a law in 1923 presenting a minimum wage for rural workers and in 1930 fixing a minimum wage for all persons employed in loading and unloading ships, which apparently would not affect women workers. Cuba has recommended the convention for ratification and has included in its newly adopted decree-law for women sex equality in the matter of wages. Though Brazil has taken no official step toward ratification, the 1934 Constitution included the principle of "equal pay for equal work," also

embodied in an act adopted in 1932. In Peru the constitution provides that the law shall fix the minimum wage and a law prescribing minimum wages for native workers has been passed. Argentina has a minimum wage law for home work, and two of the provinces have enacted minimum wage laws for various groups of workers. The constitution of Ecuador (1929) provides that legislation shall be enacted to fix a minimum wage in accordance with the average cost of living.

In the United States the question of minimum wage legislation, which for some years prior to the depression had been lying dormant in view of the United States Supreme Court decision in 1923 declaring unconstitutional a minimum wage law for women in the District of Columbia, has been much to the fore during recent years. Since the matter of constitutionality of such legislation covering men has always proved even more of a stumbling block, they have not, except as minors, been included under State minimum wage laws. During the first half of 1933 the greatly quickened interest in minimum wage legislation as a remedy to the serious breakdown in wage standards led to the enactment of such laws in seven States, bringing up to a total of 16 the number of States with minimum wage legislation for women or minors on their statute books. In these newly recruited States was evolved a type of law designed to meet the constitutional objection from the viewpoint of women and minors at least.

Then in June 1933 was enacted the National Industrial Recovery Act, designed to encourage trades and industries to formulate codes of fair competition and agreements to promote the purposes of the act with respect to transactions in or affecting interstate and foreign commerce. Also the Act authorized the President to prescribe a limited code of fair competition for a trade or industry that failed through agreement to establish satisfactory standards of employment. The Act included among other features minimum wage provisions for men as well as women. The temporary and emergency nature of this measure was doubtless responsible for the inclusion of men. Analysis has proved that women, always a cheaper form of labor than men, are the ones who have received the greatest benefits from the wage provisions in the codes. Some of the codes contain a clause stipulating that women must be paid the same as men when doing the same work.

In conjunction with the NRA program the State minimum wage legislation has continued to operate in various ways, and an effort is being made to extend the State laws, in order to underpin the desirable standards built up under the NRA.

INDUSTRIAL HOME WORK

Somewhat tied up with the minimum wage situation is that of industrial home work, which for years has been found as part of the

factory system in many countries and which has been responsible for considerable exploitation of labor, chiefly women workers, in the home. Not a great deal of legislation has been enacted as yet in the Americas to prevent this evil. Some little effort has been made to establish by law the same rates for home workers as factory workers. For example, a provision of this sort was made by Peru as far back as 1918 for women doing needlework at home. The Federal Labor Law of Mexico (1931) provided that home workers be paid at the same rate as factory workers, and has a number of other provisions safeguarding the interests of home workers. The United States took at least a step in this direction as a part of its NRA program. Argentina has a law fixing minimum wage rates for home workers of both sexes, which in practice affects women almost exclusively. Cuba in a decree-law of October 16, 1934, has some regulations on home work, for example, forbidding women who are employed in industrial establishments by day from taking work home and requiring that a minimum salary for home work be fixed annually by a special commission, composed of the Secretary of Labor or his representative, a representative of the home workers' unions, and a representative of the employers. Other attempts have been made in a few Latin American countries to regulate the home work system, and in the United States to abolish or prohibit it through legislation in some of the States and a number of NRA codes.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION

Women along with men have been greatly benefited by the almost world-wide movement of a safety-first program to protect workers against industrial accidents and to a lesser extent against occupational diseases, and as a second and essential part of the program to compensate workers in case of injury incurred as a result of their employment. In general the Americas have a creditable and constantly improving record along these lines.

The International Labor Organization has adopted several conventions dealing with such matters, in regard to the ratification of which Latin America can make a fairly good report to date. This, however, by no means reflects the national legislation of this type that these countries as a whole have to their credit. Almost every nation has taken some legal steps in regard to safety measures and compensation for workers. Of interest in this connection is the following quotation from the July 1934 issue of the *International Labor Review*: "The legislation of the Latin American countries on industrial accidents and occupational diseases has been extended in recent years, especially in the direction of increasing the employer's liability, abolishing the notion of negligence on the worker's part as exonerating the employer from his liability, and extending the idea of occupational risk to include occupational diseases."

The United States also has through the individual States made great progress in workmen's compensation legislation, although up to the present, occupational diseases have come in for a smaller share of legal attention than have industrial accidents. Forty-six States, the District of Columbia, and four Territories have enacted workmen's compensation laws, but only 12 States, the District of Columbia and 3 Territories compensate for certain industrial diseases or in general for all such. The Federal Government also has passed some limited legislation of this type.

Because of the many different and complicated aspects of this whole subject it is impossible in this limited space to go into more detail. For the same reason no discussion can be included of the many laws and regulations that individual American countries and States have established to improve plant sanitation and workroom conditions, and to have installed types of equipment conducive to the workers' health, safety, efficiency, and comfort. In some instances these regulations pertain specifically to women workers, the legal efforts taken by certain Governments to have them provided with seats being an outstanding illustration of this type.

ADDITIONAL MEASURES FOR SOCIAL SECURITY

Any analysis of American efforts to legislate in the interests of women workers leads us into a field of social legislation somewhat broader than that dealing with actual job conditions, or what we have come recently to label in the United States as a program for social and economic security for the rank and file of wage earners, such a program being now under consideration by the United States Congress. Some of the more recent constitutions or labor laws of Latin American countries contain certain general principles of social policy in the form of concrete declarations.

During the past few years as a result of the depression and its concomitant problems of unemployment, more serious attention than ever before has been given by the Governments on this side of the world to job assurance and unemployment remedies. Prior to 1929 unemployment had not been so urgent a problem in the Americas as in certain European countries, and this fact accounts largely for the failure sooner to develop measures to aid the unemployed. However, some countries, such as Argentina, Chile, Mexico, Uruguay, and the United States, for example, have had public employment agencies for a number of years. The depression, however, has quickened efforts to improve such services—to reorganize and extend them to meet the emergency conditions or to function more adequately in the future. Also, in various Latin American countries and in the United

States measures for both direct relief and work relief for the unemployed have been developed.

The system of unemployment insurance has made a bare beginning in the New World. However, as far back as 1917 Mexico declared in the constitution adopted in that year that the creation of relief funds for unemployment was a matter of social utility. The constitution of Peru promulgated in 1933 states that a system to provide against the economic consequences of unemployment will be established. In the United States, considerable attention in the past few years has been given to this question. So far only five States, Wisconsin, New York, Utah, New Hampshire, and Washington, have passed legislation providing for such. However, provisions for national-wide coverage of wage earners in certain types of undertakings by a Federal-State system of unemployment reserve funds are included in the whole social security program being considered by the Congress at the time this article was written.

Two other types of insurance to safeguard the interests of wage earners—sick benefits and old-age insurance—are of particular value to women whose wages in many instances are too low to permit of saving to meet the exigencies of the proverbial "rainy day." Though these types of insurance have been the subject of conventions adopted by the International Labor Organization comparatively little legislation along these lines has been enacted as yet in the Latin American countries. Chile has a particularly good record in these respects, for not only has it ratified the conventions on sickness insurance for industrial and agricultural workers and recommended for ratification the old-age convention, but it has also enacted creditable legislation on both subjects. In the matter of old-age insurance Uruguay also deserves special mention; recently the Government unified under one organization the existing systems, which included the general plan covering all employees and the contributory systems for special classes. In Argentina an act was recently passed requiring remuneration to commercial employees in case of accident, sickness, or death. Mexico in its constitution endorsed the principle of insurance for sickness among other desirable insurance plans. The draft labor code now being considered in Peru includes a general scheme of insurance against sickness, invalidity, old age, and death. The Brazilian system of compulsory invalidity, old-age, and survivors' insurance is being extended to cover particular groups of workers.

The United States has to its credit no sick insurance legislation despite certain efforts to get State and Federal action on the subject, but almost three-fourths of the States have passed an old age pension law, and a nation-wide system based on Federal-State action was considered by the 74th Congress.

Bare reference can be made to another social trend—legislative efforts to provide better housing for the working classes, a development naturally of paramount importance to the wage-earning woman who is so often a home maker and vitally concerned with proper housing for her family. In Latin America, Argentina and Chile, for example, some years ago, and Mexico in 1934, started projects to provide better and cheaper homes for workers. The United States recently instituted as part of its recovery program the Federal Housing Administration, a project of considerable magnitude including efforts to provide inexpensive and adequate homes for at least some of the low-wage groups.

A controversial question that has been much to the fore during the depression—the discrimination against or dismissal of married women workers—has given a feeling of insecurity to many married women in some countries. It is of interest to note that Cuba's decree-law for women prohibits employers from dismissing their women employees upon marriage.

This brief resumé of labor legislation in the Western Hemisphere serves to show very definitely that wage-earning women in the Americas, despite the various problems constantly confronting them, can take heart in view of the many and varied attempts of their Governments in the past to render them assistance, and the continued movements, ever widening in scope, to provide for both women and men workers a more helpful and extensive program in the future.



THE SEVENTH PAN AMERICAN SCIENTIFIC CONGRESS

THE Seventh Pan American Scientific Congress will be held in the capital of Mexico, on the invitation of the Government, from September 7 to 17, 1935. It is to be noted that this period includes the Mexican national holiday, September 15, in the commemoration of which the delegates are invited to join at the National Palace. The work of the congress has been divided into the following sections:

- I. Physics and mathematics.
- II. Geology.
- III. Engineering.
- IV. Industrial chemistry.
- V. Agricultural sciences.
- VI. Biological sciences.
- VII. Medical sciences.
- VIII. Hygiene.
- IX. Anthropological and historical sciences.
- X. Economic and social sciences.
- XI. Educational sciences.
- XII. Bibliography.
- XIII. Indian life.
- XIV. Juridical sciences.

The Organizing Committee appointed by the Department of Public Education is as follows:

Chairman: Pedro C. Sánchez.
Vice-Chairman: Eduardo Suárez.
General Secretary: Luis Sánchez Pontón.
Assistant Secretary: Héctor Pérez Martínez.
“ “ Emilio Schulz.

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“ Alfredo Baños.

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Chairman: Manuel Santillán.
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“ Genaro González.

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Chairman: Ignacio Avilez.
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Member: Manuel Gamio.
Alfonso Teja Zabre.
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SECTION XIII. INDIAN LIFE

Chairman: Genaro V. Vázquez.
Member: Pablo González Casanova.
“ Mariano Silva y Aceves.

SECTION XIV. JURIDICAL SCIENCES

Chairman: Luis Garrido.

Member: José López Lira.

“ Franco Carreño.

The address of the Organizing Committee is: Comisión Organizadora del Séptimo Congreso Científico Americano, Secretaría de Educación Pública, Mexico City, Mexico.

The members of the Congress will be:

(a).—The official delegates of the countries represented.

(b).—The representatives of the universities, institutions, societies and scientific corporations of the American countries.

(c).—The citizens of the countries participating in the Congress and the foreigners residing in those countries who may be specially invited by the Organizing Committee.

(d).—The representatives of scientific societies or individuals of other continents who are specially invited or wish to attend the Congress and who have a title or diploma granted by an university, or who are in any way distinguished in the opinion of the Organizing Committee or who show an interest in scientific matters.

Studies prepared for the Congress should be sent to the General Secretary before August 1, 1935, with a résumé not more than 500 words in length. Authors not able to send their studies on or before that date should send to the Secretary the title of their paper, accompanied by the résumé, within the time limit above mentioned.

The official languages of the conference will be Spanish, French, English and Portuguese.

Most of the meetings of the Congress will be held in the beautiful Fine Arts Palace, which was recently completed. The program of the Congress, which includes a series of official entertainments and trips to places of interest near Mexico City, was drawn up by the Organizing Committee. It is as follows:

Sunday, September 8.

5 p. m.—Reception at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

Monday, September 9.

9 a. m.—Plenary Session in the Conference Hall under the chairmanship of the Director of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History; President of the Organizing Committee, in order to organize the Sections into which the Congress is divided.

12 m.—Inauguration of the Congress in the Fine Arts Palace. The Diplomatic Corps will be invited to attend. Welcome by the General Secretary of the Organizing Committee. Official opening by the Secretary of Public Education representing the President of the Republic.

4 p. m.—Organization of the Sections by their Presidents, at the places assigned at the Plenary Session.

Tuesday, September 10.

Section meetings morning and afternoon, during the hours indicated by the respective chairmen.

Wednesday, September 11.

Section meetings morning and afternoon.

Thursday, September 12.

9 a. m.—Visit to San Juan Teotihuacán in motor cars under the direction of one of the Archaeological Commission. Luncheon tendered by the Secretary of Public Education. Return to Mexico City at 2 p. m.

4 p. m.—Section meetings.

Friday, September 13.

Section meetings morning and afternoon at the hours indicated by the respective chairmen.

Saturday, September 14.

8 a. m.—Visit to Cacahuamilpa and Cuernavaca. Luncheon tendered by the Secretary of National Economy. Return to Mexico City at 9 p. m.

Sunday, September 15.

Attendance at the commemoration of the national holiday National Palace at 10 p. m.

Monday, September 16.

Attendance at the patriotic ceremonies.

Tuesday, September 17.

Plenary Session under the chairmanship of the Assistant Secretary of Public Education in the hall of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History. Lecture by the Director of the Institute on the "Orogeny of the Mexican Republic and the Importance of the Volcanic Axis." Reports rendered by the Section chairmen. Official closing of the Congress by the Assistant Secretary of Public Education.

2 p. m.—Luncheon at Xochimilco tendered by the Chief of the Federal District.

9 p. m.—Reception at the Alvaro Obregón Civic Center.



EARLY PRESS HISTORY IN CHILE

By LOLA ANDERSON

School of Journalism, Columbia, Missouri

THE appearance of the *Aurora de Chile, Periódico Ministerial y Político*, upon the streets of Santiago on February 13, 1812, was a memorable occasion. The joy with which the tiny sheet was received "cannot be expressed in words," wrote Fray Melchor Martínez, historian. "Men ran through the streets with the *Aurora* in their hands, stopping whomever they met, reading and rereading its contents and promising each other that through this means the ignorance and illiteracy in which until that time they had lived would be broken down, replaced by culture and learning which would transform Chile into a kingdom of wisdom."

Thus was greeted the birth of Chilean journalism, a tiny but lusty infant, destined to grow to goodly stature before the passing of a century, in spite of turmoil and internal strife, which in those early years threatened to tear the country asunder. Although this child of Chilean patriotism frequently suffered from growing pains and other ailments peculiar to childhood, and sometimes the spark of life dimmed perceptibly, it survived the difficulties, nourished by a growing spirit of nationalism and independence.

During the colonial period, Spain had not favored her colonies' having printing presses. The first press was introduced into Chile in 1776, at which time several Spanish American countries, notably Mexico, Guatemala, Peru, and Argentina, already had acquired presses and had developed periodical journalism to some degree.

The first press to reach Chile was small and crude and was used only for documental and ecclesiastical printing. The University of Chile also had a small press which functioned in 1800 and 1801, but even as late as 1803 it was necessary for the President of Chile to send to Buenos Aires to have printed a seven-page pamphlet entitled *Reglamento del Hospicio de Pobres de la Ciudad de Santiago*.

Seven years passed, and on September 18, 1810, a patriotic government was set up with José Miguel Carrera at its head. This is the date which Chileans celebrate as their Independence Day, but in reality there followed years of intense struggle before that independence was made secure.

The patriots conceived the idea of acquiring a printing press for use in their campaign for liberty. Hence it was in this same year that the new government commissioned Mateo Arnaldo Hoevel, a Swede by

birth but a citizen of the United States, who had only recently arrived in Chile, to bring from the former country a printing press and a battery of cannon, two things evidently considered essential for the successful termination of the revolution which had begun in that year.

Hoevel arrived in Valparaíso on the United States frigate *Galloway* on November 24, 1811, with a small printing press, and by the same ship came three typographers, Samuel Burr Johnston, William Burbidge, and Simon Garrison, all United States citizens, who were to operate it.

The new press was set up in a room of the old building of the University of San Felipe in Santiago, where the Municipal Theater now stands. Father Camilo Henríquez, a native of Valdivia and a valiant patriot, was chosen by Carrera as editor of the publication which was soon to be founded. One Alonso J. Benítez of London acted as interpreter and translator for the North American printers.

The first *Aurora* contained an announcement that it was printed "with superior permission on the press of the supreme government." Its contents throughout the 56 issues were varied, but at all times news was secondary. The little that it carried was from foreign countries: for example, accounts of the coronation of the negro king of Haiti and of demands for favors made by the Catholics in Ireland, taken from foreign newspapers. A translation of the inaugural address of Thomas Jefferson was printed on November 12, 1812. Articles on such subjects as education, health, religion, agriculture, politics, patriotism, and liberty, some of which were continued from one week to another, reflected national thought and the interests of the leaders of the country. Father Henríquez was the author of many of these articles. Some of the earlier numbers contained poems.

Figures famous in Chilean history were collaborators. Among them were Agustín Vial Santelices, Juan Egaña, Hipólito de Villegas, Anselmo de la Cruz, Manuel de Salas, and José María Bazabuchiascúa, and also the illustrious Guatemalan Antonio José Irisarri, the Argentine Bernardo de Vera y Pintado, and the Spaniard Manuel Fernández Hortelano.

The *Aurora* consisted of four small pages numbered consecutively by volume, two columns to the page, with "label" captions set in small type. No advertising was carried, but public notices were run.

All three North American typographers served until the twenty-first issue, bearing the date July 2, 1812, but their names were omitted from the colophon of the twenty-second. In the twenty-third the names of Johnston and Garrison reappear. During this interval, Burbidge had died of wounds received in a clash with the police when the latter interfered with a Fourth of July celebration being held by a group of North Americans which included the three printers. They were taken to prison, where Burbidge died. Johnston and Garrison

AURORA DE CHILE

PERIODICO

MINISTERIAL, Y POLITICO.

Nº. 1.

Jueves, 13 de Febrero, de 1812.

Tomo 1º

NOCIONES FUNDAMENTALES SOBRE LOS DERECHOS DE LOS PUEBLOS.

TODOS los hombres nacen con un principio de sociabilidad, que tarde ó temprano se desenvuelve. La debilidad, y larga duracion de su infancia, la perfectibilidad de su espíritu, el amor maternal, el agradecimiento y la ternura, que de él nacen, la facultad de la palabra, los acontecimientos naturales, que pueden acrear, y reunir de mil modos á los hombres errantes y libres: todo prueba que el hombre está destinado por la naturaleza á la sociedad.

El fuera infeliz en este nuevo estado, si viviese sin reglas, sin sujecion, y sin leyes, que conservasen el orden. ¿Pero quien podia dar, y establecer estas leyes, quando todos eran iguales? Sin duda el cuerpo de los individuos, que formaban un pacto entre si de sujetarse á ciertas reglas establecidas por ellos mismos para conservar la tranquilidad interior, y la permanencia del mismo cuerpo, que formaban. Así pues el instinto, y la necesidad, que los conducia al estado social, debia dirigirl necesariamente todas las leyes morales, y políticas al resultado del orden, de la seguridad, y de una existencia mas larga y mas feliz para cada uno de los individuos, y para todo el cuerpo social. Todos los hombres, decía Aristoteles, inclinados por su naturaleza á desear su comodidad, solicitaron, en consecuencia de esta inclinacion, una situacion nueva, un nuevo estado de cosas, que pudiese procurarles los mayores bienes posibles: tal fué el origen de la sociedad.

El orden y libertad no pueden conservarse sin un gobierno: y por esto la misma esperanza de vivir tranquilos, y dichosos, protegidos de la violencia en lo interior, y de los insultos hostiles, compelió á los hombres ya reunidos á depender, por un consentimiento libre, de una autoridad pública. En virtud de este consentimiento se erigió la *Protestad Suprema*, y su ejercicio se confió á uno, ó á muchos individuos del mismo cuerpo social.

En este gran cuerpo hai siempre una fuerza central, constituida por la voluntad de la nacion para conservar la seguridad, la felicidad, y la conservacion de todos, y prevenir los grandes inconvenientes que nacerian de las pasiones y se observa tambien una fuerza central, que proviene de los esfuerzos, injusticias, y vio-

lencias de los pueblos vecinos, por las cuales obran unos sobre otros para extenderse, y agrandarse á costa del mas debil; á menos que cada uno se haga respetar por la fuerza. Por este principio la historia nos presenta á cada paso la esclavitud, los estragos, la atrocidad, la miseria, y el exterminio de la especie humana. De aqui es que no se encuentra algun pueblo, que no haya sufrido la tirania, la violencia de otro mas fuerte.

Este estado de los pueblos es el origen de la monarquía, por que en la guerra necesitaron de un caudillo, que los conduxese á la victoria. En los antiguos tiempos, dice Aristoteles, el valor, la pericia, y la felicidad en los combates elevaron á los capitanes, por el reconocimiento, y utilidad pública, á la potestad real.

No tuvo otro origen la monarquía española. Los Reyes Godos ¿que fueron en su principio sino Capitanes de un pueblo conquistador? ¿Y de qué le hubiera servido al Infante Don Pelayo descender de los Reyes Godos, si los españoles no huviesen conocido en él los talentos, y virtudes necesarias para restaurar la nacion, y reconquistar su libertad?

Establescamos pues como un principio, que la autoridad suprema trae su origen del libre consentimiento de los pueblos, que podemos llamar pacto, ó alianza social.

En todo pacto intervienen condiciones, y las del pacto social no se distinguen de los fines de la asociacion.

Los contratantes son el pueblo, y la autoridad ejecutiva. En la monarquía son el pueblo, y el rey.

El rey se obliga á garantir y conservar la seguridad, la propiedad, la libertad, y el orden. En esta garantía se comprehenden todos los deberes del monarca.

El pueblo se obliga á la obediencia, y á proporcionar al rey todos los medios necesarios para defenderlo, y conservar el orden interior. Este es el principio de los deberes del pueblo.

El pacto social exige por su naturaleza que se determine el modo con que hade ejercerse la autoridad pública: en que casos, y en que tiempos se hade oír al pueblo; quando se le hade dar cuenta de los

THE FIRST PERIODICAL OF CHILE.

This is a reproduction of page 1 of the first issue of the "Aurora de Chile." It is to be noted that early press work did not reach present-day standards.

were released after fifteen days and returned to work. A young Chilean, José Manuel Gandarillas, had charge of the printing during their absence.

The last *Aurora* was dated April 1, 1813, and for almost a week thereafter Chile was again without a periodical. Even though the life of this first sheet was short, it had fulfilled a great mission.

Beginning with *El Monitor Araucano*, which appeared on April 6, there followed a succession of some 79 publications during the next fourteen years, less than a dozen of which survived more than a half year. These were all published in Santiago, most of them being patriotic organs. The same printing press was used for some years and with its limited equipment the size and appearance of the early periodicals varied but little. Neither did their content vary greatly. The idea that the function of journalism was primarily that of shaping public opinion through dissemination of propaganda held sway until many years later, and the small amount of news, chiefly foreign, which the early sheets carried hardly justifies their classification as newspapers; but as in the case of many other great enterprises which arise from small beginnings, the importance of these early journalistic efforts cannot be ignored.

The early period of Chilean journalism has been placed from 1812, the date of the first *Aurora*, to 1827, when *El Mercurio*, dean of Spanish American newspapers, was founded in Valparaíso. This event marked a new trend in national journalism.

El Monitor Araucano, a tri-weekly, also was edited by Father Camilo Henríquez, whom his countrymen call "the Father of Chilean journalism." The American typographers had gradually been succeeded by Chileans whom they had trained, among them José Camilo Gallardo, a royalist sympathizer who later played a prominent part in the royalist press, and Eusebio Molinare, whose name appears in the colophon of many succeeding publications. These two were typographers for the paper, which was published until September 13, 1814, its existence through 183 issues having been extremely precarious.

La Ilustración Araucana, which appeared on September 6, 1813, survived only its second issue. It had but a single column to the page, and the patriotic essays with which it was filled carried no captions. Near the time of the last appearance of *El Monitor Araucano* there occurred at Rancagua the disaster in which the patriots were defeated and Santiago was taken over by the royalists. The press passed into royalist control, and there was little activity, for the country was going through one of the darkest periods in the history of its struggle for independence.

La Gaceta del Gobierno de Chile, an eight-page weekly, came out on November 14 as the official organ of the royalists, after two months during which Santiago had been without a periodical. *The Gaceta*,

printed in smaller type than its predecessors, was the first Chilean paper to carry an advertisement. This first *aviso*, really a public notice rather than an advertisement, was carried February 2, 1815. On September 7 in the same year an advertisement was inserted by a father seeking more pupils for his children's teacher, in order to make a class; while another on October 5 announces the beginning of such a class. A total of 173 numbers of the *Gaceta* were published. This was the most important royalist publication. Gallardo was its editor.

May 25, 1815, saw the first appearance of *El Augurio o Cartas Quillotanas*, an occasional publication, which lasted only through its twelfth issue.



FATHER CAMILO HEN
RÍQUEZ (1769-1825).

As editor of the "Aurora de Chile", which was first issued February 13, 1812, Father Henríquez is acclaimed as the founder of Chilean journalism.

Then two years elapsed with no new publications. They were years of strife and hardship, especially for the patriots. In 1816, however, General José de San Martín crossed the Andes into Chile to aid them. This was a turning point in their favor, and the triumph of the patriots at Chacabuco on February 12, 1817, and the capture of Santiago two days later gave renewed impetus to journalism. In that year four new periodicals, all organs of the reorganized patriotic government, began publication. The first of these, which appeared on February 26, was the *Gaceta del Supremo Gobierno de Chile*, a tri-weekly. It ceased with the sixteenth number.

The *Gaceta de Santiago de Chile*, a weekly, began publication on June 18. It carried chiefly official decrees, documents, and financial

reports, with some foreign news, and was printed by Molinare and Antonio Xara. The first volume consisted of 37 numbers, after which, beginning May 2, 1818, the name was changed to *Gaceta Ministerial de Chile*. At the same time the paper was increased from four pages to eight, but was soon reduced to four again. The issue of August 8, 1818, contained the by-laws of the Society of Friends of Chile, an organization whose object was to promote the advancement of industries, the establishment of patriotic schools and schools for women, and other similar activities. Altogether, 387 numbers of this paper were published, extending over a period of more than seven years; the last was that of October 19, 1824. This was the longest-lived publication of the entire 14-year period.

The *Semanario de Policía*, a weekly which came out on September 3, 1817, contained police regulations and proclamations by Mateo Arnaldo Hoewel, who had become *intendente* of the Province of Santiago and general superintendent of police. There were notices of lost and found articles, of robberies, of workers and artisans needed or wanting work, and other "useful" announcements. Proclamations prohibited cooking or playing games in the streets of Santiago, washing clothes in the Mapocho River which runs through the city, and selling certain articles under the plaza arcades; they likewise set the hours for lighting houses from 6.30 to 12 p. m. in winter and from 8 to 12 in summer. A reward of five pesos was offered for the discovery of a robber; a Negro slave and a house were offered for sale; a lottery was announced; gifts of money and clothing for the army were listed. Only 19 numbers of this unique sheet were published, the last bearing the date of May 20, 1818.

The fourth and last publication of that year was the *Amigo de la Ilustración*, announced as a tri-weekly, the first number of which was put into circulation September 6, three days after the first *Semanario de Policía*. It came to a premature end with its second number, which continued a flowery essay on patriotism begun in the first, accompanied by a letter from the author.

On February 12, 1818, the first anniversary of the triumph of the patriots at Chacabuco, a plebiscite was held to declare the nation free. The battle of Maipú, which actually assured Chile of her independence, did not take place, however, until April 5. Bernardo O'Higgins became head of the patriotic government in that year, and an era of improvement was begun.

Journalistic enterprise followed new trends, for during the year four new weekly periodicals were started, the first of which was probably *Clamor de la Justicia e Idioma de la Verdad*. The three issued now available carry no dates. The first was devoted to a dialogue between "Paulino" and "Rosa", brother and sister, in

which the cause of American liberty is "vindicated" of the accusations most commonly made by its opposers. The second contained another dialogue, on *La Justicia en Defensa de la Verdad* (Justice in Defense of Truth) between "Clarideo" and "Rosa" alluding to the previous one.

On May 28, *El Argos de Chile* first came from the press. Its contents were chiefly editorial, but it contained some news in its eight small pages. The second number featured a "dialogue between Love and Friendship." When the press was too busy this sheet was not issued and publication ceased altogether with the twenty-second number, in which the editor took leave of his readers saying that he wanted only to "open the way for other writers."

El Duende de Santiago, which was first published on June 22, was continued weekly for nearly five months, ceasing with its nineteenth issue.

Beginning on July 3, an eight-page sheet, *El Sol*, was circulated each Friday for 31 weeks. The first article on the freedom of the press to appear in any Chilean periodical was contained in its first issue. Besides three news stories, it carried also a list of subscribers, numbering four (the circulation actually was 15, since the Supreme Government took twelve copies). It was announced as being devoted entirely to "the happiness of Chile." The second issue continued the discourse upon the liberty of the press, while the third featured an article advocating national instruction and discussions of politics and conditions in Russia. Letters supposedly exchanged between one "José Miguel" and the devil introduced the feature story element. One number carried conspicuous headlines over stories of the death of Murillo the bandit and the evacuation of Talcahuano by the army.

Only three numbers were published of *El Chileno*, a weekly founded in July.

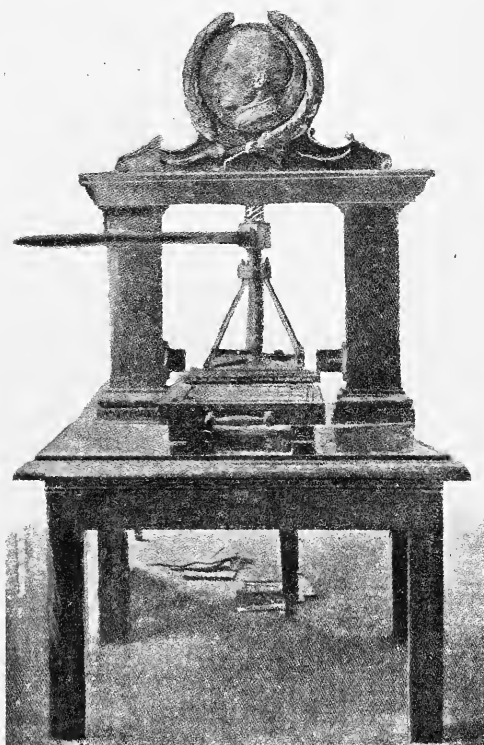
The following year brought forth only two successful journalistic attempts, the more important of which was *El Telégrafo*, published 75 times beginning on May 4, 1819, and ending on May 2, 1820. Its expressed purpose was "to give the news and publish public documents, laws, orders and decrees . . . essays and discourses upon political and legislative matters, statistics on population, resources, imports and exports, production, manufacture, historic discussions, and information on art, science, biography, customs, literature, and other subjects." Correspondents from Europe and the United States collaborated. On one occasion the statement was made that freedom of the press was non-existent, but that the Senate had been legislating upon it for six months. Juan García del Río, a Colombian, was editor.

Cartas Pehuenches, also published during 1819, consisted of a series of 12 undated letters supposedly exchanged between two Indians native to Pire Mapu, the one a resident of Santiago and the other of the Pehuenche cordilleras, and set forth the idea that "every man has liberty to publish his ideas and to examine the objects which are to his advantage."

In 1820 and 1821 the Chilean Army was in Peru aiding the cause of liberty in that country. *El Censor de la Revolución*, a patriotic tri-monthly first appearing on April 20, 1820, was the only new

THE PRESS ON WHICH THE
"AURORA DE CHILE" WAS
PRINTED.

This press, one of the earliest in Chile,
is now preserved in the National
Museum. It was imported from the
United States.



publication of that year. It carried in its last issue, July 10, a long article on *The Present State of the Revolution*, another on *The Liberative Expedition to Peru*, and news that the army had left for Valparaíso on its way to Peru. One number recounts the death of King George III of England, a revolution in Spain, and a murder committed in Santiago with the subsequent execution of the criminal. The editor solicited the collaboration of "enlightened men" and declared in the first issue that the purpose of the paper was to aid the cause of justice and liberty.

Three weekly periodicals began publication in 1821. The first, *Miscelánea Chilena*, on February 15, became defunct after its fourteenth issue. One number of *El Independiente* was published, on May 21, containing a letter addressed *Al Exmo. Sr. Supremo Director de Chile* from *El Independiente* upon the subject of freedom of the press and the need of laws to govern the people for their well being. This must have made an impression, for letters answering *El Independiente* were printed in other papers. The third, *Colección de Noticias Documentadas por Diversos Papeles Públicos que Dan una Idea del Actual Estado Político de Europa y América y de la Influencia Resulta de los Sucesos en Favor de la Libertad*, which is best described by its title, began publication on September 11 and ceased with its eighth number, October 26.

During these years O'Higgins had instituted various reforms, such as the reopening of the national library, which had been closed during the revolution, the exempting of books, pamphlets and periodicals from taxation, and the publication of various periodicals. Most of the latter were edited by eminent writers like Irisarri and García del Río. The first daily mail was established between Valparaíso and Santiago, at that time a "distance" of two weeks apart by oxcart.

The year 1822, in which the United States recognized the independence of Chile, brought forth three new papers, all of which died prematurely. *El Cosmopolita*, published weekly from July 18 for 16 weeks, gave most of its space to discussing the constitution of the United States. On November 25 it carried a description of a "frightful earthquake", which was said to be the worst since that in 1730. Santiago was reported to be in ruins and Valparaíso much damaged.

El Mercurio de Chile, 25 monthly issues of which were published, was edited by Father Henríquez. This was an attempt at a literary review. Its contents included articles of historical, scientific, economic, and literary character, and a little foreign news.

El Observador de Chile, first published August 20, contained letters to the editor, news from foreign countries, poetry, articles on emigration, naturalization, politics, education, philosophy, and a few small advertisements. The seventh and last number was that of November 16.

The following year (1833) witnessed a decided expansion and increase in journalistic activity with 17 new periodicals. This was a year of general national progress. Among the improvements effected were the abolition of Negro slavery, establishment of schools for girls, and freedom of the press.

The first of the 17 new periodicals was *Boletín de las Leyes y Decretos del Gobierno*, which came out on February 12. This was followed

by two weeklies, *El Clamor de la Patria*, on March 3, which lasted seven weeks, and *El Amigo de la Verdad*, on March 19, which lasted four weeks.

El Tizón Republicano, a fortnightly publication which appeared in March as a result of the freedom gained by the press, expressed as its aim the combating of public abuses and indiscretions of the magistrates. It was published until July 23 of that year.

Two publications apparently were inspired by *El Tizón*, for both made bitter attacks upon it. Five numbers of *Interrogante y Respondente* were published between March 13 and June 6, but only three of *Corresponsal del Imparcial*, March 14, 21, and 29.

The next seven, all weeklies in name, appeared between April and August and were also short-lived. The *Amigo de los Militares* of April 12 ceased with the third issue; *El Despertador Araucano*, a political-literary review of May 3, with the second; *El Nuevo Corresponsal*, undated, with religious tolerance as its theme, with the second; *El Apagador*, June 3, with the first; *Actas del Senado Conservador y Legislador*, June, with one volume; and *El Observador de Chile* with the first issue, on July 16. *El Observador Eclesiástico* was published from June 21 until December 13.

The *Redactor de las Sesiones del Soberano Congreso* published the proceedings of Congress from August 20 until September 20. *El Liberal*, which circulated once in ten days from July 28 until February 4, 1825, was significant in the history of the press because its issue of August 17, 1824, carried in full the decree of July 30, 1824, granting liberty of the press.

The divided sentiment of the Chileans in regard to aiding Peru in her fight for independence was reflected in *El Imparcial de Chile*, which was published five times during 1823, weekly but undated. One entire issue was devoted to a single article entitled *Upon the Clamor against Sending an Expeditionary Army to Peru*.

Notas sobre las Operaciones del Congreso de Chile, issued five times beginning September 11, recorded the stand and action of Congress on various matters and gave information regarding foreign and domestic debts and public finance. The last number was devoted entirely to negotiations of a special finance commission for the establishment of a bank.

The year 1824 saw again a decrease in the number of new periodicals. There were five. The first, *El Correo de Arauco*, a government organ appearing January 30, lasted through fifty regular issues published "without fixed date", although it had been announced as a weekly to be circulated on Fridays. Not only did it contain foreign news, but there was some national news, the latter extracted from "the most reputable" periodicals based on the "most accurate information." There were official documents,

critical comments on happenings in Chile and the condition of the country, abuses of the administration and "public faults", information on sailings of ships, announcements, and an occasional poem. The last issue was that of June 22.

The next publication of that year was *El Examen Instructivo*, on February 14, only eight numbers of which were published, and these at irregular intervals. *El Avisador*, beginning March 27, appeared fortnightly 17 times. Two numbers of *El Alcoroquo sin Hojas*, the first on September 11, and ten of *Cartas Familiares de C. a un Amigo Residente en . . .*, beginning October 15 and issued irregularly, were published.

In 1825, the year in which Freire called the third Congress, nine periodicals were started but only two lived through the fifteenth issue. The first of these was *La Década Araucana*, tri-monthly beginning July 12, which ceased with the nineteenth, and the *Diario de Documentos del Gobierno*, beginning October 18, which died with the eighty-third number. The latter was the first daily published in Chile.

El Pensador Político-Religioso, a weekly, beginning March 23, died with the fifteenth issue; *La Abeja Chilena*, irregular as to time of publication, with the eighteenth. The *Boletín de Policía*, monthly, beginning February 1 and lasting through March 1, was to have informed the public of the work of the police.

Six numbers of the *Registro Oficial de la Suprema Junta Interior Gubernativa*, beginning in June, were published at irregular intervals. *El Patriota Chileno*, fortnightly beginning December 19, came out fifteen times, while six issues each of the last two, *Redactor de la Ilustración* and *Junta Interior Gubernativa*, were published.

Six periodicals began publication in 1826, the last year of this so-called early period. Like their predecessors, they were all short-lived, the most persistent being the *Registro de Documentos del Gobierno*, a tri-monthly, which began publication on April 18 and ceased with the eighty-fourth issue. A characteristic of these later years was the change from weekly to tri-monthly, monthly, and occasional periodicals.

The *Registro Público*, a tri-monthly, beginning March 21, lasted through the eighth number.

El Correo Mercantil e Industrial, beginning April 20 and published irregularly, although it had been announced as a tri-weekly, had 74 issues. It announced arrivals and departures of ships, listed subscribers, and gave meteorological observations, public notices, foreign commercial news, prices of foodstuffs, and maritime information. On August 22, 1826, the title was changed to *Correo Mercantil-Político-Literario*, indicating thereby an expansion of policy. An occasional essay was the only literary innovation following the change, however.

El Volcán Chileno, a tri-monthly, began publication April 25, but lasted only through the third issue. This was the organ of the "Society of Friends of the Human Race," a philanthropic organization instituted in the town of Quillota. The first issue listed the names of the members and of the president, José María Novoa, Minister of War and Marine. Suspension of this periodical occurred following a decree of the government requiring 200 copies of each periodical to be printed.

La Estrella de Chile, a weekly, was published from August 31, 1826, to April 23, 1827, or 32 issues in all.

The last periodical to begin publication in Santiago before 1827 was *Sesiones del Congreso Constituyente*, a tri-monthly, beginning on September 7. Eleven numbers were published.

In this same year, the first periodical outside of Santiago, *El Telégrafo Mercantil y Político*, began publication in Valparaíso on October 3, edited and directed by Pedro Félix Vicuña. This was the beginning of provincial journalism in Chile.

The following year, 1827, marked the beginning of a new era both politically and journalistically. After the final rout of the royalist army by the patriots and the subsequent organization of a centralized federal government with Manuel Blanco Encalada as President of the Republic, a new regime was ushered in. The infant journalism which had struggled along precariously for fourteen years now had an opportunity to develop and expand in new directions under the leadership of men trained on the early partisan sheets.



COSTA RICA JEWEL OF SOUTH AMERICA¹

PART II

By MANUEL GONZÁLEZ ZELEDÓN

Minister Resident of Costa Rica in the United States

THE visitor to this charming country may stop for a few days at San José, the capital, where he can be very well accommodated in modern hotels, among hospitable and gracious people, who speak English and French in addition to their own language. If he finds time, he may spend pleasant afternoons on the neighboring coffee plantations and in many exquisite gardens. He may scale the beckoning mountains along asphalted roads in good American automobiles or climb on horseback to the craters of the nearby volcanoes, whence both oceans are visible. He may take pleasure in observing the interesting process of the cultivation, harvesting and preparation for market of the coffee; or merely refresh himself with the simplicity, gracious customs and beautiful religious ceremonies of the people. If he is pleasure-bent, there are many dances and fiestas he can attend, where simple, intimate pleasures, sincere merriment and modest amusement reign.

If the panorama of the valley on the Atlantic side must be called beautiful, that of the Pacific coast, especially the Gulf of Nicoya, must be considered enchanting. This deep, sandy-bottomed gulf is dotted here and there with a great many small islands, well protected against prevailing winds. "Geographically it can rival the most beautiful harbors of the world and Costa Rica can consider this portion of her territory one of the most exquisite jewels of her crown."

Sheltering the gulf on the western side is found the Peninsula of Nicoya, whose western coast is bathed by the waters of the Pacific Ocean. Its inhabitants devote themselves to cattle-raising, agriculture, and fishing; in its forests there are fine woods; it enjoys a variable and very healthful climate. In many sections there have been discovered aboriginal cemeteries or tombs containing stone idols, clay cooking utensils of exquisite workmanship and amulets of gold and jade, many of which can be found today in numerous museums of Europe and America.

The northwestern section of Costa Rica constitutes the Province of Guanacaste, of which the Peninsula of Nicoya forms an integral part. In this region the principal occupation is cattle-raising. The

¹ Part I was published in the May issue of the BULLETIN.

Tilarán mountain range, with its great volcanoes Orosí, Rincón, and Miravalles, is crossed in the north by smaller ridges containing a volcano called El Tenorio. Some of these are of calcareous formation and contain rich marbles which are still unexploited. Vast level plains, where the temperature varies from hot to warm and cool, form the greater part of this region. In the rainy season, when they are flooded by the overflowing rivers, they are the haunt of thousands of herons, flamingoes, and game birds. On these vast prairies graze many herds of cattle and horses. Herding them are *sabaneros* or cowboys, usually half-breeds. They are strong, vigorous and intelligent workers, very valiant and daring, and excellent horsemen, who



GATHERING CACAO.

In a corner of the cacao plantation, the huskers gather and open the pods to get the kernels from which cocoa and chocolate are made.

can easily vie with the best riders of the Argentine pampas or the American plains.

The people of Guanacaste are of a very cheerful and expansive character, hospitable and passionately fond of the beautiful panorama of their homeland, whose wealth and fertility enable them to cross this vale of tears with little effort. Meat, milk, and cheese they have in abundance; game, fish, and the honey of wild bees are never lacking; exquisite fruits, sugarcane, grains, and vegetables are easily cultivated; enchanting woodland groves thrive all around them; horses are within reach of their hands; even the trunk of a tree happens to be bored by nature in the form of a canoe so that they may traverse long distances on their large, tranquil rivers. The climate is mild



THE BANANA INDUSTRY IN COSTA RICA.

Upper: A banana plantation in the Atlantic coast region. The production and exportation of the fruit ranks second only to coffee growing. The trade started with a trial shipment to the United States in 1872. Lower: A banana stem. This huge stem is evidence of the excellence of the banana plantations of Costa Rica.



and healthful, the air pure and invigorating; birds like flowers and flowers like perfumed butterflies abound on all sides. With all nature conspiring to make them comfortable and happy why should they not be cheerful and expansive, when their tranquillity is guaranteed by an orderly and peaceful government which does not molest or oppress them with taxes, nor force them to give up the best years of their youth to military service?

And as their contributions to the pleasure of living, there are the playful guitar, the lively marimba, the *tamborcito* (tambourine or small drum) and the *jícara* (hollow gourd) filled with grains of dried corn which when shaken beats the rhythm to the music they send gaily into the air; there is the gourd dripping with piquant *chicha* (a beverage made of fermented corn and sugar) to quench their thirst. And for their further delight, there is ever present the swaying, alluring body of a copper-colored companion with sparkling black eyes, who moves as rhythmically and gracefully in the dance as her cousins of Cadiz or Granada, who sings like the mocking-bird, murmurs like the turtle-dove, and darts about like the humming-bird!

At no very distant day, the great Pan American Highway will cross these same prairies, and when that happens, there will be many American tourists traversing them comfortably in their fine automobiles. Perhaps they will pause to rest awhile and drink a *huacal* of refreshing *chicha* or a *jícara* of foaming *pinobillo*, a native drink made of ground corn and cacao mixed with sugar and water, listening, meantime, to the primitive music of the marimba and contemplating the undulating, provocative movements of a dance completely Guanacastecan, in the clearing of a grove of cedar and mahogany trees gaily festooned with marvelously beautiful orchids and hanging vines that fill the atmosphere with the fragrance of vanilla, mimosa, and verbená.

Few of the inhabitants of Costa Rica are of pure indigenous stock. At the beginning of the conquest, the Spaniards encountered no more than 40,000 aborigines all told, between the numerous small tribes scattered throughout the land, which differed from one another only in dialect and slightly in racial features. All were easily subjugated by the conquistadors with the exception of the Talamancas, who were never completely dominated but were merely surrounded by the wave of civilization that gradually engulfed them. The last king of this warlike tribe, baptized Juan Saldaña, who was completely civilized and had been educated in the public schools, died barely forty years ago, still gripping in his hand his wooden sceptre and wearing on his breast the golden eagles and amulets that constituted the outward signs of his authority, graciously shared during his lifetime with the local sheriff, appointed by the President of the Republic. The writer purchased the gold eagles and amulets.

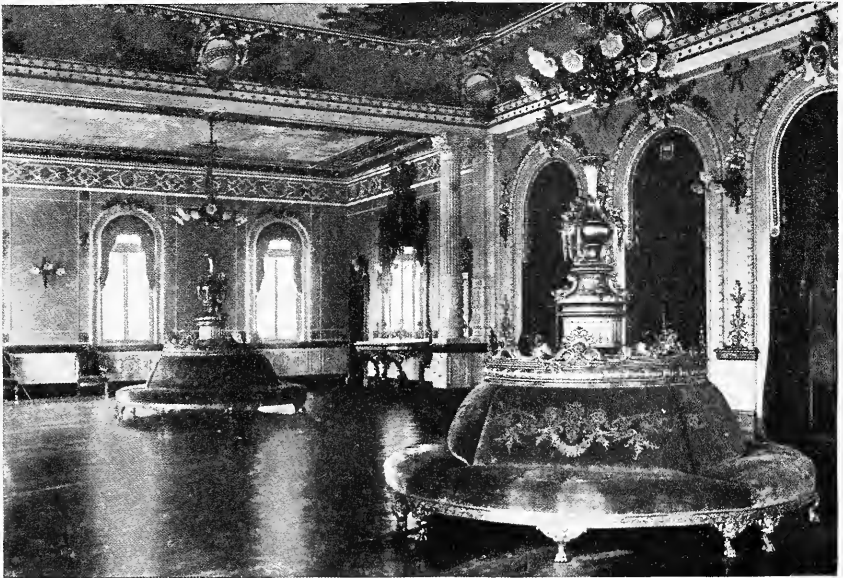
Such was the haste of the conquistadors to destroy and enslave the Indians and so great was the suffering and oppression to which the latter were subjected that, according to the last census, there remain today a mere three thousand. These are, with very rare exceptions, fairly civilized; they no longer go about in the ancient apparel (or rather lack of apparel) of the Garden of Eden, but wear ordinary garb. They live in peace in their little huts, working at various trade.

Throughout the central plateau where the present capital, San José, the former capital, Cartago, and other important cities such as Heredia, Alajuela, Santo Domingo, Atenas, San Ramón, and Grecia along with a hundred other villages and hamlets of considerable size are situated, a white race of pure Spanish stock predominates, practically unmixed with the indigenes. The Spanish language is spoken with a few colloquialisms, or *costarrriqueñismos*, which give a certain individuality and not a little charm and grace of expression.

It is in this central valley, where perpetual spring reigns, that the greatest degree of progress can be noted. The Costa Ricans can affirm with wholly justifiable self-satisfaction that the percentage of illiterates can be counted on the fingers of one's hands. In every village there is a modern school just a few paces away from a well-kept Catholic church. Streets, plazas, parks, water mains, electric lighting and well-constructed dwellings clearly demonstrate that the inhabitants have indeed crossed the Rubicon from the primitive life which only seventy years ago existed throughout the Republic. The roads are solid, well-built modern highways on which automobiles travel smoothly and rapidly. On these highways can be seen many Chevrolets, Buicks, Fords and other more luxurious cars, alongside ambling oxcarts, horseback riders or mule drivers and, not infrequently, electric trams and busses carrying twenty or more passengers. Overhead, through the sapphire-colored sky, airplanes serving local and international transport swiftly come and go. Meanwhile, from the Atlantic the steam train comes chugging along the shining parallels of the railroad, still smelling of the banana plantations, and from the Pacific comes the electric train that only three hours before was sprayed by the ocean waves.

Since the transition has been so rapid, the usages and customs of the olden days have not been completely effaced; there can still be observed in some places the dress typical of the Costa Rica of 60 years ago. In some of the remoter villages the men still wear a so-called Panama hat, a short jacket of black, navy or dark green wool serge, a shirt of fine white linen, narrow-bottomed trousers girdled by a red sash of silky net with heavy fringed ends which circles the waist two or three times and is knotted at the right side, and a brightly colored silken kerchief fastened about the neck with studied carelessness. The women can still be seen wearing their long dark hair parted in the

center, the two thick plaits braided with little black silk ribbons being arranged at the nape of the neck in an artistic knot, and bound with a shining fillet of bright color; a fresh flower is thrust in the hair on the left side. They still wear low blouses of fine white cloth, trimmed with lace, embroidery, or spangled ruffles. The blouse is tucked under a skirt made of delicate cotton stuffs in dainty flowered patterns on brightly colored grounds, with two or three flounces at the bottom; a gay shawl of fine cotton or silk with a deep fringe is drawn gracefully across the shoulders and arms; while about the throat is a silken kerchief of vivid hue, its points caught at the top of the low-necked



FOYER OF THE NATIONAL THEATER, SAN JOSÉ.

The most important social events of the Costa Rican capital are held in this splendid theater.

blouse by a lovely brooch or a beautiful flower. Their feet are unshod but clean and well cared for, soft and nimble.

From their ancestors the Costa Ricans inherited regular features, strong, well-formed, tireless bodies, and grace of motion. They are witty and cheerful in disposition and characterized by exceeding generosity, kindness and hospitality. Innumerable visitors to this little land have affirmed, from their own observations and experiences, that with rare exceptions the women of Costa Rica are beautiful, gentle and kind, graceful and refined, patient and unselfish. We can at least contend that the men of this small but happy Republic should be everlastingly grateful to God for a thousand different reasons, but principally for having given them daughters, wives, and mothers who may be equalled but not excelled in other lands.

The leading amusement in this gay country was until recently bullfighting, a predilection for which Costa Ricans inherited from their Spanish forebears. The bullfights in Costa Rica have a great advantage over those of Spain, both from a humanitarian and pleasurable standpoint, for the Costa Rican bulls are not ferocious and every youth between the ages of 18 and 25 believes himself to be an expert toreador and takes an active part. Consequently, the bull ring in Costa Rica is filled with a motley group of would-be toreadors harassing a meek and unhappy quadruped, which the day before had been hitched to an oxcart and on the morrow will probably be turning the pole of the threshing machine on a nearby coffee plantation.

The barriers encircling the bull-ring, formed of wooden rails tied with vines or tough fibers, are the free seats, or bleachers, for the rabble; the boxes surrounding the plaza at a height of approximately ten feet are occupied by the well-to-do, who come wearing costumes of the latest style. Below the boxes are many improvised stands for the sale of fruits and sweets, ice cream, punch, and refreshments, and also more solid foods such as tamales, sandwiches, and cold meats, with which are served chocolate or coffee.

The military bands and orchestras of the towns, street organs, calliopes from the merry-go-rounds, accordions, harmonicas, pianolas, and phonographs, all waft into the warm air of the afternoon, brilliantly illumined by a tropical sun, disjointed bits of melodies and discordant sounds in which are mingled the strains of *After the Ball is Over*, *The Blue Danube*, *The Marsellaise*, or the national anthem, together with Cuban *rumbas*, Colombian *bambucos*, Argentine tangos, American jazz, and Costa Rican *zapateados* and *boleros*. With all this are also intermingled the shouts of country people, accented by the shrill cries of children, the hoarse barking of dogs, and the plaintive bellows of the bull, that poor unhappy horned beast who is pursued by a cloud of improvised toreadors hanging to his tail.

At night the public gathers about a large plaza where beautiful displays of fire works are held. Afterwards, popular dances take place for the lower class, and here the young Lotharios and their blithe and merry companions dance a round displaying their natural graces, to the tune of the marimba and cheery guitars.

The best society in San José still congregates in the open air in one of the parks to listen to magnificent selections from the greatest composers, rendered in a masterly manner by the Military Band.

From the concert, society goes on to the fashionable clubs or to the salons of the Gran Hotel Costa Rica where old and young dine and dance until the rising sun announces the dawn of a new day.

Almost since the founding of the Republic, high society has gathered to celebrate the 15th of September, the anniversary of national

independence, and the 31st of December, to salute the New Year. Formerly the company assembled in the grand salon of Congress; now the celebrations take place in the beautiful National Theater, a jewel of architecture, which is a source of pride to all patriotic Costa Ricans, for they erected it with the proceeds of an export duty on coffee, voluntarily contributed, that amounted to more than a million dollars. There, amid silks and velvets, in a resplendent frame of beautiful vari-colored marbles, fine bronzes, lovely mosaics, and exquisite paintings of high artistic merit, a stately ball takes place. Adorned in their most fashionable raiment, the élite of Costa Rican society come, in high spirits from bubbling champagne and

ALTAR IN CHURCH AT OROSÍ.

This altar, of elaborately carved cedar, had as its central feature a painting of Christ brought from Guatemala prior to 1785.



excellent liqueurs, to dance and make merry to the strains of a magnificent orchestra in this charming setting. Each year, among the most delicate flowers of that garden of exquisitely lovely women there takes place one of the most brilliant pageants of feminine beauty, wherein the great difficulty is to choose between supreme grace, loveliness, and inimitable charm. The spectator can truthfully say that no official reception in the United States or Europe surpasses this function, and must marvel when he realizes that less than 150 years ago, as Tomás de Acosta, Governor in those days, once said: "There were people dressed in the bark of trees and many who rented or borrowed clothing to go to church."

FOREIGN TRADE OF CHILE WITH THE OTHER REPUBLICS OF SOUTH AMERICA 1925-1934

By JULIAN G. ZIER

Assistant Statistician, Pan American Union

THE following data on the trade of Chile with the other Republics of South America during the years 1925 to 1934, inclusive, are taken from an analysis of this trade prepared by the Director General of Statistics of the Republic, which appeared in *Estadística Chilena* for January, 1935.

During the 10-year period mentioned the average annual value of Chile's import trade with the world amounted to 915,000,000 pesos gold of 6 pence, and that of the exports to 1,300,000,000 pesos gold.

The share of the republics of South America in this trade for the ten-year period was 113,700,000 pesos for imports, or 12 percent of the total from all countries, and 46,500,000 pesos for exports, or 4 percent of the total to all countries.

Peru occupied first place as a supplier of Chilean imports during the last decade with an average annual value of 53,200,000 pesos, followed by Argentina with 38,400,000 pesos. Brazil provided an average of 12,900,000 pesos; Ecuador, 6,800,000 pesos; Uruguay, 900,000 pesos; Venezuela, 700,000 pesos; Bolivia, 600,000 pesos; and Colombia, 200,000 pesos.

The principal purchaser of Chilean products was Argentina, exports to that republic in ten years averaging 23,000,000 pesos, followed by Bolivia with 9,000,000 pesos; Peru with 8,100,000 pesos; Brazil with 1,900,000 pesos; and Uruguay with 1,500,000 pesos. Exports to Ecuador were valued at 1,000,000 pesos; to Colombia, 900,000 pesos; and to Venezuela, 100,000 pesos.

The trade for significant individual years—1925, 1929, and 1934—shows that imports from Peru, amounting to 75,000,000 pesos in 1925, increased to 81,000,000 pesos in 1929, but declined to 21,000,000 pesos in 1934. From Argentina imports to the value of 37,000,000 pesos in 1925 rose to 75,000,000 pesos in 1929, and decreased to 6,000,000 pesos in 1934. Those from Brazil, amounting to 20,000,000 pesos in 1925, declined to 17,000,000 pesos in 1929, and to 3,000,000 pesos in 1934. Imports from Ecuador, valued at 6,000,000 pesos in 1925, rose to 11,000,000 pesos in 1929, but fell to 2,000,000 pesos in 1934. Imports from Venezuela totaled only 52,000 pesos in 1925, a

figure which grew to 300,000 pesos in 1929, and to 3,000,000 pesos in 1934. Those from Bolivia, with a value of 700,000 pesos in 1925, increased to 1,200,000 pesos in 1929, but dropped in 1934 to slightly less than 200,000 pesos. Uruguay supplied nearly 4,000,000 pesos worth of Chile's imports in 1925, which amount was diminished to little over 500,000 pesos in 1929, and to only 18,000 pesos in 1934. Imports from Colombia showed little change during the period reviewed.

Chilean sales to Argentina, amounting to 31,000,000 pesos in 1925, reached a value of 39,000,000 pesos in 1929, but declined in 1934 to 9,000,000 pesos. Exports to Peru, valued at 17,000,000 pesos in 1925, fell to 6,400,000 pesos in 1929, and increased to 8,000,000 pesos in 1934. Sales to Bolivia, amounting to 19,000,000 pesos in 1925, decreased to 12,000,000 pesos in 1929, and to 2,000,000 pesos in 1934. Exports to Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Uruguay, and Venezuela remained about the same.

Declines registered in both imports from and exports to the other South American republics, since 1929, were, of course, due to the general economic depression. Favorable trade balances (excess of exports over imports) in 1934 are recorded for Argentina, Uruguay, Bolivia, and Colombia; while for Peru, Brazil, Ecuador, and Venezuela unfavorable balances are shown.

The table on page 562 shows the foreign trade of Chile with the other Republics of South America for the years 1925 to 1934, inclusive.

The principal commodities entering into the interchange of commerce between Chile and the other South American Republics are as follows:

Argentina.—The leading products imported from Argentina comprise cattle, sheep, hides, cottonseed, wheat, and wheat flour. Chilean exports to Argentina are: Coal, timber, wool, beans, peas, lentils, fruits, nuts, malt, wines, garlic, and sulphur.

Bolivia.—With the exception of coffee, Chilean imports from Bolivia are few and small in amount. Exports to Bolivia are wheat, wheat flour, malt, wines, explosives, vegetables, fruits, coal, timber, and sulphur.

Brazil.—Cacao, coffee, and yerba maté form the bulk of Chile's importations from Brazil, and in return Brazil purchases nitrate, cereals, vegetables, fruits, malt, and wines.

Colombia.—Chilean purchases from Colombia consist of small quantities of coffee. Exports to that Republic include beans, peas, lentils, fruits, wines, and garlic.

Ecuador.—Chilean imports from Ecuador are principally bananas and other fruits not classified. Rice, cacao, coffee, sugar, and cottonseed are also imported. Wines and vegetables are exported to Ecuador in return.

Foreign trade of Chile with the other Republics of South America—1925 to 1934

[Values in thousands of gold pesos, i. e., 900 omitted]

Imports from—		1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Argentina.....		36,908	70,279	49,703	51,487	75,090	57,041	10,915	7,500	19,092	5,896
Bolivia.....		675	762	426	774	1,259	765	176	688	367	192
Brazil.....		19,965	17,200	18,608	20,276	17,080	13,340	7,537	7,517	3,994	3,432
Colombia.....		52	65	513	221	81	190	328	38	1	9
Ecuador.....		5,583	8,734	6,198	8,418	11,385	13,206	6,527	2,790	2,921	2,390
Paraguay.....		(1)	(1)	42	97	97	627	2	(1)	(1)	2
Peru.....		74,888	86,086	54,765	64,678	81,255	59,150	43,173	27,479	25,845	21,202
Uruguay.....		3,918	1,453	509	824	526	857	552	102	22	18
Venezuela.....		52	51	190	530	294	416	70	1,150	999	2,773
South American Republics.....		141,741	178,630	130,972	147,250	187,067	145,592	69,286	47,264	53,141	35,884
Total imports.....		1,223,378	1,292,671	1,072,991	1,200,034	1,617,564	1,400,125	705,902	213,786	181,815	241,618
Exports to—		1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933	1934
Argentina.....		30,903	23,652	32,131	36,995	38,642	30,314	13,481	8,044	10,700	8,612
Bolivia.....		18,629	17,465	12,491	11,965	11,883	11,109	3,578	2,443	1,675	2,428
Brazil.....		3,082	563	1,263	2,010	2,160	3,566	1,349	1,033	1,414	2,960
Colombia.....		412	241	2,059	3,963	740	714	694	123	250	650
Ecuador.....		1,320	1,094	1,501	1,118	887	491	516	530	1,290	1,338
Paraguay.....		16,705	13,387	80	294	237	507	70	12	4	26
Peru.....		1,516	951	7,023	9,903	6,467	7,267	3,466	3,864	5,119	8,094
Uruguay.....		1,116	53	1,613	1,844	2,819	2,299	2,037	796	732	695
Venezuela.....				45	75	40	2,271	78	67	39	74
South American Republics.....		72,704	57,406	58,246	68,167	63,875	56,538	25,272	16,912	21,193	21,877
Total exports.....		1,878,758	1,654,539	1,689,608	1,964,269	2,293,723	1,328,122	824,739	290,494	343,771	496,581

1 Less than one thousand pesos.

Paraguay.—The interchange of commodities between Chile and Paraguay being small, the products entering into this trade were not enumerated in the analysis of the Director General of Statistics.

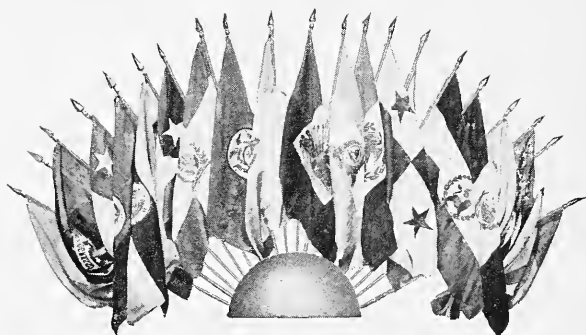
Peru.—Chile purchases petroleum, mineral oils, and benzine from Peru; also rice, coffee in grain, vegetables, raw cotton, sugar, and cottonseed. Exports to Peru consist of timber, quillay bark, cattle, sheep, oats, beans, peas, lentils, wheat flour, malt, and wines.

Uruguay.—Purchases from Uruguay are small. The most important exports are woods, quillay bark, malt, wines, beans, peas, and lentils. Fruits and nuts are shipped in small quantities.

Venezuela.—Imports from Venezuela consist almost entirely of petroleum, with small amounts of cacao and coffee. Exports to Venezuela are chiefly wines, bran, and beans.



A PART OF THE HARBOR, VALPARAISO, CHILE



PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Accessions.—Dr. Dantès Bellegarde, formerly Haitian Minister to the United States and to France, and many times representative of his country in the League of Nations, has presented to the Library his new collection of addresses, entitled *Un Haïtien Parle*. Author, educator, and lawyer, as well as diplomat, Dr. Bellegarde collects in this volume various addresses, chiefly on topics concerning his native land. Social, political, economic, educational, and international questions are all discussed in these twenty discourses. A fine tribute to Andrew Carnegie, paid at the time of the Fourth Pan American Commercial Conference, is included.

The Proceedings of the Brazilian Child Welfare Conference, held in September 1933 under the auspices of the Ministerio da Educação e Saúde Publica, have just been received. The report, in five volumes, contains in addition to the official proceedings all the papers on various topics relating to child welfare presented at the conference.

The Hispanic American History Congress, commemorative of the fourth centenary of the founding of Cartagena de Indias, which met in December 1933, has also recently published its proceedings. Representatives were sent to this meeting from eleven American countries and from France and Spain, as well as from numerous learned societies within the boundaries of Colombia. The index lists many interesting and valuable reports made to the Congress, such as those on pre-Colombian culture in America, archives as sources for the colonial history of the Americas, and the work of the several monastic orders in early American history.

The Argentine section of the Library was enriched by three books on cultural subjects—the theater, art, and literature. Though a small volume, *Los Orígenes del Teatro Argentino*, by Oscar R. Beltrán, gives a detailed history of the theater in Argentina from the founding of

Buenos Aires to 1884, at which time the gaucho play *Juan Moreira* had its première. Alfredo Chiabra Acosta's book, entitled 1920-1932—*Críticas de Arte Argentino*, includes numerous art criticisms which he published in Argentine periodicals under the pseudonym "Atalaya." The many plates are reproductions of Argentine works of art. This volume, published posthumously, contains material written up to the author's death, in September, 1932. The essays on literature are by the well-known Argentine novelist, Manuel Gálvez. He presents observations on typical Argentine themes as found in books by national authors. The title of the work is *La Argentina en Nuestro Libros*.

Another important accession was *Archaeological Researches at Teotihuacán, Mexico*, by Dr. Sigvald Linné, the noted Swedish scholar.

In 1932 Dr. Linné was granted an eight-month leave of absence from the Ethnographical Museum in Stockholm for archaeological study and research. After visiting ruins in the Valley of Mexico and in the Yucatan Peninsula, he decided to conduct researches at Teotihuacán with the permission of Mexican authorities and the consent and aid of Dr. George C. Vaillant of the American Museum of Natural History.

Referring to Dr. Linné's work, Mr. Frans Blom said in an article published in the BULLETIN (December 1934):

"The most important result was the discovery and clearing of a ruin hidden below a maize field about 2,000 feet east of the Pyramid of the Sun. Originally this building complex, which measures 98 by 131 feet, included more than 40 rows grouped around a rectangular courtyard bordered by platforms. . . .

"Six consecutive building periods, or building-out stages, were established. Below the floors of the house ruin were found seven graves containing, among other things, a considerable quantity of ceramics of the classical Teotihuacán type, as well as fragments of an alien character, possibly Maya. A fairly numerous represented type of pottery, which in all respects differs from the Teotihuacán ceramics, must have been imported, possibly from the Chalchicomula district west of Mount Orizaba.

"Between the ground level and the floors of the ruin were discovered numerous graves and artifacts coming from a later people who had made their habitation on the low mound that had formed on the site of the ancient establishment from crumbled walls, sand, and soil. This culture, the Mazapán culture, occupies a date between the Aztec and the Teotihuacán cultures." . . .

The paper-bound volume, translated and printed in Sweden, is handsomely illustrated, and the material is presented logically and clearly. After introductory chapters intended to furnish a background for the layman, Dr. Linné discusses the excavation, classifies

and describes the finds, particularly the ceramics, and adds a dozen appendices which amplify or elucidate points brought out in the main body of the work. In the final chapter, "Summary and Conclusions", a brief, clear, undogmatic interpretation of the results of his work explains to the reader its significance in unraveling the tangled skein of pre-Colombian history for that region.

Another gift was that of the two latest works of Alfredo L. Palacios, donated by the author. *Las Islas Malvinas* is a complete history of the Malvinas Islands, explaining the title of Argentina to sovereignty over this group. *Libertad de Prensa* is a defense of the freedom of the press in Argentina.

A new bibliographic journal from Uruguay is the *Boletín bibliográfico de la Biblioteca de la Facultad de Derecho y Ciencias Sociales de Montevideo*, of which the Library has just received the first number, that for January, 1935. It devotes much space to reviews of national and foreign books and periodicals.

The list below includes some interesting books received:

Las Islas Malvinas, archipiélago argentino [por] Alfredo L. Palacios. Prólogo del Profesor Jorge Cabral Texo. Buenos Aires, Colección Claridad [1934] 170, [4] p. fold. map. 18 cm.

Libertad de prensa [por] Alfredo L. Palacios. Juicio: Palacios y su libro, por Víctor French Matheu. Buenos Aires, Colección Claridad [1935] 214, [6] p. 18 cm.

Los orígenes del teatro argentino [por] Oscar R. Beltrán . . . Buenos Aires, Editorial Luján, 1934. 158 p. illus., ports. 19 cm.

1920-1932—críticas de arte argentino [por] Alfredo Chiabra Acosta ("Atalaya"). Buenos Aires, M. Gleizer, editor [c. 1934] 399 p. plates. 19½ cm.

La Argentina en nuestros libros [por] Manuel Gálvez . . . Santiago de Chile [Prensas de la Editorial Ercilla] 1935. 205 p., 1 l. 23½ cm. (Biblioteca América. VIII.)

Hipólito Yrigoyen, 1878-1933; documentación histórica de 55 años de actuación por la democracia y las instituciones, por Luis Rodríguez Yrigoyen. Buenos Aires, 1934. 543 p. 24 cm. [Twice president of the southern Republic. Yrigoyen is discussed in the light of the laws on social questions (including education, labor, suffrage, and charity) and economic subjects (including agriculture, finance, banking, industry) which he helped to forward.]

La pesca en la República Argentina [por] Argentino B. Rossani. Rio de Janeiro, Editorial Alba, limitada [1935] 139 p. illus. 19½ cm. [The first half of this book, devoted to a description of the principal fish of Argentina, is written in popular vein, with the scientific name of each and illustrations of many. The second half gives the Argentine laws on fishing, from October 1880, to November 1925.]

Rubén Darío y su creación poética, por Arturo Marasso. La Plata [Buenos Aires, Imprenta López] 1934. xxvi, 409 p. illus., plates, facsims. 23 cm. (Biblioteca humanidades, editada por la Facultad de humanidades y ciencias de la educación, de la Universidad de La Plata. Tomo XIII.) [This volume is the third of a series of studies relating to Latin America. Señor Marasso's aim is to study the theory of poetics of the great Modernist. He considers each of Darío's works and writes in general of his vocabulary, his allusions, his figures of speech, and the formative influences which affected his work.]

La crónica oficial de las Indias occidentales; estudio histórico y crítico acerca de la historiografía mayor de Hispano-América en los siglos XVI a XVIII. Con una introducción sobre la crónica oficial en Castilla. Por el Dr. Rómulo D. Carbia . . . La Plata [Buenos Aires, Imprenta López] 1934. vii, 303 p. 23 cm. (Biblioteca humanidades, editada por la Facultad de humanidades y ciencias de la educación, de la Universidad de La Plata. Tomo XIV.) [Another volume of this interesting series relating to Latin America (see "Rubén Darfo y su creación poética" above). The present work is an account of the official chroniclers of Spain in the New World during colonial times with review of the work of the most eminent. A seventeen-page bibliography is appended.]

Episodios históricos de Bolivia, por Luis S. Crespo . . . [La Paz, Escuela tipográfica del Colegio "Don Bosco", 1934] t. I: 4 p. l., xxvi, 335, IV p. illus., plates, ports., map. 26½ cm. Contents.—Conquista y colonización. [In this volume Señor Crespo describes the pre-Columbian era, the discovery, and the colonization of the high plateau, in its relation to adjacent regions. In succeeding volumes he intends to give the history of the war for independence (1809-25), of the Republic from 1825 to 1880, and of the republic since the War of the Pacific (1880-1934). As the title indicates, history is presented through outstanding episodes.]

Conferencia nacional de proteção á infancia, 17-27 de setembro de 1933 . . . [Publicação do] Ministerio da educação e saúde publica. Rio de Janeiro, 1933. 5 v. tables (part fold.) 23½ cm. Contents. v. I. Atas e trabalhos. Parte geral. v. II. Assistência e legislação. v. III. Educação. v. IV. Higiene. v. V. A mortalidade infantil.

Antología de poesía chilena nueva [por] Eduardo Anguita [y] Volodia Teitelboim . . . Santiago de Chile, Editorial Zig-Zag, 1935. 169 p. 25½ cm. [This anthology contains poems by the following contemporary Chilean writers: Vicente Huidobro, Ángel Cruchaga Santa María, Pablo de Rokha, Rosamel del Valle, Pablo Neruda, Juvencio Valle, Humberto Díaz Casanueva, Omar Cáceres, Eduardo Anguita, and Volodia Teitelboim. The selections by each author are preceded by a list of his published works and a brief summary by him of his poetic principles. The editors state that they included only a few poets because their aim was to publish an anthology of the definitely "new" poetry.]

El Macizo colombiano en la prehistoria de Sur América; arqueología y prehistoria del nudo andino de Colombia, por Mons. Federico Lunardi. Presentado en la sesión inaugural del Instituto panamericano de geografía e historia, Rio de Janeiro, diciembre 1932-enero 1933. Apartado del volumen especial de la *Revista do Instituto historico e geografico brasileiro*. Rio de Janeiro, Imprensa nacional, 1934. 5 p. l., [5]-87 p. Plates, maps (part fold.) 23½ cm. [The "Macizo colombiano" is a section of the Andes where the Magdalena river and other smaller streams have their headwaters. Caldas in 1797, and Rivero, Tschudi, and Codazzi in the mid-nineteenth century, found traces there of an ancient civilization. Mons. Lunardi sets forth the history of the region and the comparatively recent archaeological discoveries made there. His maps and four-page bibliography help to show the importance of this study.]

Congreso hispano-americano de historia, conmemorativo del cuarto centenario de la fundación de la ciudad de Cartagena de Indias, reunido el 25 de diciembre de 1933. Cartagena de Indias [Imprenta departamental, 1935.] 388, [3] p. plates. 23 cm.

Un Haïtien parle [par] Dantès Bellegarde. Port-au-Prince, Chéraquit, Imprimeur-éditeur, 1934. 279, [1] p. 23 cm. [See page 564.]

Honduras y sus problemas de educación [por] Carlos Izaguirre. Tegucigalpa, Talleres tipográficos nacionales, 1935. 1 p. l., ii, iv, [3]-197 p. 22 cm. [This series of articles was written in 1926 while the author was in the United States studying American educational methods.]

Europa y México, 1861-62 . . . [por] Javier P. de Acevedo . . . Monografía histórica diplomática. Prólogo de Gastón Mora. Habana, Imp. Rambla, Bouza y cía., 1935. 248 p. 22 cm. [Señor Pérez de Acevedo, who has been in the Cuban diplomatic service, writes of the important period in Mexican history when three creditor nations—Great Britain, France and Spain—were trying to collect their claims by armed force. The study closes with the French intervention and the Empire of Maximilian.]

Álvaro Obregón, su vida y su obra [por] Roberto Quirós Martínez. [México?] 1928. 4 p. l., [5]-680 p. plates, ports. 23½ cm. [A long biography of the man who was President of Mexico from 1920 to 1924, and who was killed in 1928 on the eve of his second term.]

Leonora Llorente de Elías Calles [por] Roberto Quirós Martínez . . . México [Talleres gráficos de la nación] 1933. 3 p. l., [3]-212, [1] p. illus., ports. 24 cm. [The late wife of ex-President Plutarco Elías Calles is the subject of this biography.]

Abelardo L. Rodríguez, el mejor amigo del proletario, [por] Roberto Quirós Martínez . . . México, 1934. 864 p. illus., ports., facsim. 24 cm. [The author makes a detailed study of the work accomplished by Señor Rodríguez when President of Mexico, 1932 to 1934.]

El problema del proletariado en México [por] Roberto Quirós Martínez . . . México [Talleres linotipográficos de la penitenciaría del D. F.] 1934. xlvii p., 1 l., 736 p. illus., ports. 24 cm. [A companion to the preceding volume, this book shows the condition of the laboring classes in Mexico, and the efforts made in the last two years to improve it.]

Archæological researches at Teotihuacan, Mexico, by S. Linné. . . . Stockholm, Victor Petterssons Bokindustriaktiebolag, 1934. 236 p. col. front., illus., diagrs. 30 cm. (The Ethnographical museum of Sweden (Riksmuseets Etnografiska Avdelning) New series. Publication no. 1.) (See p. 565.)

Investigación económica de la República de Panamá, llevada a cabo a petición del gobierno de Panamá, bajo la dirección de George E. Roberts . . . [Panamá, Imprenta nacional, 1933] 2 p. l., [iii]-iv, 495, XXIV p. tables (1 fold.) 26 cm. [This comprehensive economic and financial report is the result of a survey authorized by the Panamanian government and made during 1929 under the direction of Mr. Roberts, then a vice-president of and now the economic adviser to the National City Bank of New York, and Mr. Herbert D. Brown, former chief of the United States Bureau of Efficiency. Mr. Roberts' report covers economic subjects, such as natural resources, agriculture, population, means of communication, port works, foreign commerce, public health and the banking system. Mr. Brown's report treats of matters relative to government, including the public debt, the budget, national accounting, civil service and the salaries of government employees, taxation, the national lottery, and the administration of Government Departments and independent offices.]

Ricardo Palma, por Angélica Palma. Edición del centenario del Tradicionista (7 de febrero de 1933) con numerosas ilustraciones documentales. Buenos Aires, Editorial Tor, 1933. 156 p., 1 l. plates, ports., facsim. 19 cm. (Ediciones argentinas "Condor". Las grandes biografías contemporáneas. Vol. VIII.) [This volume is the first in this series of biographies that relates to a Latin American. The author writes of her father's life in her own excellent style. The interest is enhanced by the personal touch and by the use of letters and other material inaccessible to biographers outside the family.]

Aventura y tragedia de Don Francisco de Miranda [por] José Nucete-Sardi. Caracas, Cooperativa de artes gráficas, 1935. 415 p., 2 l. incl. pl. (col. port.) 19½ cm. [Among the other works of José Nucete-Sardi is a brief biography of Bolívar. This life of Miranda is an excellent literary monument to the great Precursor and should be classed for its completeness, for its fine style, and for

its valuable documentary sources with the standard biographies of a great Venezuelan.]

Analectas de historia patria. . . Edición de Parra León hermanos en el duodécimo aniversario de la fundación de la Editorial Sur-América. Prólogo de Caracciolo Parra. Caracas, Parra León hermanos, Editorial Sur-América, 1935. cxiii, 582 p. 32 cm. Contents.—Oviedo y Baños: Historia de Venezuela.—Caulín: Historia de la Nueva Andalucía.—Aguado: Población de Mérida y S. Cristóbal.—Febres Cordero: "Décadas" merideñas. [These extracts are from four of the most famous Venezuelan histories. Oviedo's book was first published in Madrid in 1723; Caulín's in 1779. Aguado's history, written in 1581, was first published from the original manuscript in 1906 in Bogotá. Tulio Febres Cordero's *Décadas* were written in the last part of the nineteenth century. The section included here covers the period up to 1600. Dr. Caracciolo Parra writes in his long introduction a biography of each of the three early historians and gives a complete summary and criticism of their works represented in this volume. Each has a separate title-page.]

National anthems of the countries of North, Central, and South America arranged and edited by Ernesto Murillo. . . Chicago, Clayton F. Summy co., 429 South Wabash Ave., 1935. 72 p. 26 cm. [This collection comprises the national anthems arranged for piano and voice of all the Pan American republics and of Canada. All verses of each song are printed in the original language and a translation with English is published as a supplement. "Each anthem is strictly in accordance with the official version," says the preface.]

La Séptima conferencia de las naciones americanas, por el Dr. James Brown Scott . . . Habana, Imprenta Molina y cía., 1935. 132, [1] p. 23½ cm. [Dr. Scott's discussion of the action of the Seventh International Conference of American States and his study of several questions presented to the conference form the latest critical examination of that important gathering. Sections of this study have already been printed in the *Revista de derecho internacional*, organ of the Instituto americano de derecho internacional in Habana.]

The following magazines are new or have been received for the first time during the last month:

Cursos y conferencias; revista del Colegio libre de estudios superiores. Buenos Aires, 1934? Año IV, n° 1. 112 p. illus. 24x16½ cm. Monthly. Address: Belgrano 1732, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Revista de trabajo, seguro y previsión social; Buenos Aires, 1934. Año I, n° 1, octubre, 1934. 97 p. 29x19½ cm. Monthly. Editors: Dr. Leonidas Anastasi, Dr. Alejandro M. Unsain. Address: Calle Uruguay 546, Piso 4, Dto. 8, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Tribuna del magisterio; órgano de publicidad de la Confederación de maestros. Buenos Aires, 1935. Año XV, n° 165, 15 de marzo de 1935. 32 p. illus. 26½x18 cm. Address: Sarandí 40, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Vida femenina; la revista de la mujer inteligente. Buenos Aires, 1935. Año II, n° 18, enero 12, 1935. 46 p. illus. 28½x20 cm. Monthly. Editor: María L. Berrondo. Address: Rivadavia 2150, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Sarmiento; publicación quincenal ilustrada; órgano de la "Asociación Sarmiento". La Plata, 1934. Año I, n° 1, 15 de noviembre de 1934. [16] p. illus., ports. 24x16 cm. Editor: Abel Díaz Peña. Address: Calle 4 n° 575, La Plata, República Argentina.

Revista de instrucción pública. Rosario, 1934. Año I, n° 1, octubre de 1934. 64 p. 26x18 cm. Monthly. Editor: Clemente A. Zamora. Address: 25 de diciembre 684, Rosario, Santa Fé, República Argentina.

Boletim da Sociedade Luso-Africana do Rio de Janeiro. Rio de Janeiro, 1934. Nos. 10 e 11, Segunda série, agosto a dezembro, 1934. [89] p. illus. (part col.), ports., maps. $27\frac{1}{2} \times 18\frac{1}{2}$ cm. Editor: Antônio de Sousa Amorim. Address: Rua 13 de Maio n° 33—5° andar, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

Boletim veterinário de exército. Rio de Janeiro, 1935. Anno II, Nos. 4 e 5, fevereiro e março de 1935. [44] p. illus. 23×16 cm. Monthly. Editors: J. Olegário da Silva Junior, Ari de Menezes Gil, Manoel Cavalcante Proença. Address: Avenida Bartolomeu de Gusmão, S. Cristovão, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

Revista de leprologia de São Paulo; órgão da Sociedade paulista de leprologia. São Paulo, 1934. Vol. I, n° 4, novembro, 1934. [46] p. illus. $23\frac{1}{2} \times 16$ cm. Quarterly. Editors: L. de Souza Lima, J. Mendonça Barros. Address: Sanatorio Padre Bento, Linha Cantareira, Gopouva, S. Paulo, Brasil.

Revista costarricense; publicación semanal para el hogar. San José, 1935. Año, V, n° 193, 7 de abril de 1935. 16 p. 26×17 cm. Weekly. Editor: Sara Casal vda de Quirós. Address: Apartado 1239, San José, Costa Rica.

Boletín oficial universitario [Universidad de la Habana.] Habana, 1934. Año I, n° 1, Tomo I, 15 noviembre de 1934. 37 p. 25×18 cm. Semi-monthly. Address: Departamento de información e intercambio universitario, Universidad de la Habana, Habana, Cuba.

Boletín oficial, Distrito nacional, Consejo administrativo. Santo Domingo, 1935. Volúmen X, Año II, Segunda época, 15 de abril de 1935. 39 p. 22×15 cm. Address: Consejo administrativo del Distrito nacional, Santo Domingo, República Dominicana.

La riqueza agrícola; publicación de propaganda agropecuaria. Guayaquil, 1935. Año V, n° 36, marzo de 1935. 12 p. illus. $37\frac{1}{2} \times 26$ cm. Editor: Atilio N. Descalzi Mendoza. Address: Malecón 1806, Casilla n° 665, Guayaquil, Ecuador.

Nueva Galicia, la revista clásica de Occidente. Guadalajara, 1935. Vol. 2, Año III, n° 17, abril, 1935. 28 p. illus. $34 \times 23\frac{1}{2}$ cm. Monthly. Editor: Mario E. Bozzano. Address: Edificio Mosler, 5° piso, Apartado 231, Guadalajara, Jalisco, México.

Boletín jurídico militar. México, 1935. n° 2, marzo 1° de 1935. 12 p., $23\frac{1}{2} \times 17\frac{1}{2}$ cm. Address: Procurador general de justicia militar, México, D. F., México.

Revista del Distrito nacional. Managua, 1935. Año I, n° 1, 1° de abril de 1935. 28 p. illus. $24\frac{1}{2} \times 17\frac{1}{2}$ cm. Monthly. Editor: Alberto Ibarra M. Address: Palacio del Distrito nacional, Avenida Bolívar, Managua, Nicaragua.

Acercamiento; revista mensual ilustrada de la vida nacional. Panamá, 1935. Año II, n° 7, febrero, 1935. 29 p. illus., ports. 31×24 cm. Editor: Olmedo del Busto. Address: Ave. Norte No. 11, Aptdo. 331, Panamá, Panamá.

Boletín bibliográfico de la Biblioteca de la Facultad de derecho y ciencias sociales de Montevideo. Montevideo, 1935. n° 1, enero, 1935. [16] p. $24 \times 16\frac{1}{2}$ cm. Quarterly. Editor: Dr. Eduardo J. Couture. Address: Facultad de derecho y ciencias sociales, 18 de Julio n° 1824, Montevideo, Uruguay.

El Terruño. Montevideo, 1934. Año XVIII, n° 210, 15 de diciembre de 1934 a 15 de enero de 1935. 46 p. illus., ports. 29×20 cm. Monthly. Editor: Agustín M. Smith. Address: Cerrito 629, Montevideo, Uruguay.

RCV; órgano del Radio club venezolano. Caracas, 1935. Vol. 1, n° 11, abril de 1935. [16] p. illus. (ports.) $23\frac{1}{2} \times 16$ cm. Monthly. Address: Torra a Madrices n° 8, Caracas, Venezuela.

The Latin America traveler. Friends of Latin America, publishers. New York, 1935. Vol. 1, n° 1, June, 1935. 30 p. illus. $27\frac{1}{2} \times 21$ cm. Monthly. Editor: Emma Boehm Oller. Address: 489 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y., U. S. A.

PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

RECIPROCAL TRADE AGREEMENT BETWEEN HAITI AND THE UNITED STATES

The reciprocal trade agreement between Haiti and the United States signed at Washington on March 28, 1935, went into effect on June 3, 1935, after proclamation by the Presidents of the two countries. This agreement is the fifth concluded under the Trade Agreements Act of June 12, 1934,¹ the four previous ones being with Cuba,² Brazil, Belgium, and Sweden, respectively. Negotiations are in progress with thirteen other countries, six of which are Latin American Republics. Based on the principle of unconditional most-favored-nation treatment and having as their object trade expansion rather than trade diversion, these agreements give practical expression to the principles enunciated at the Seventh International Conference of American States at Montevideo in 1933.

The following summary of the Haiti-United States Agreement was prepared by the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce of the United States Department of Commerce:³

The agreement provides for reductions in the existing duties of each country on certain products of particular interest to the other, and assurances against the imposition or increase of duties on certain other products. In addition, it contains a reciprocal assurance of unconditional most-favored-nation treatment of each other's commerce in all respects, and special safeguards against the impairment of the trade benefits of this agreement through import quotas, internal taxes, or exchange control. . . .

In return for the assurance of continued duty-free admission into the United States of the following items of Haitian production—coffee, cocoa beans, sisal fiber, logwood, bananas, and ginger root—plus reductions in the present American duties on rum, fresh pineapples, and mangoes and guavas in preserved form, Haiti is to grant, under this agreement, duty concessions on a range of American export products, industrial and agricultural. These concessions on the part of Haiti consist of reductions in duty on 13 tariff classifications, conditional duty reductions on 3 tariff classifications, and assurance against the increase of import duties on an additional list of commodities covering 19 tariff classifications.

¹ For a summary of the Trade Agreements Act, see "Trade Agreements between the United States and Latin America" by Guillermo A. Suro, *BULLETIN of the Pan American Union*, November 1934.

² *Ibid.* p. 786.

³ *Commerce Reports*, April 6, 1935.

The commodities on which reductions in the Haitian import duties are to be made are: Tanned goat and kid skins; sewing machines and parts therefor; fresh and refrigerated beef, mutton, and pork; certain fresh, dried, and canned fruits; common cheese, butter, preserved milk, malted milk, and infant's food; and seed potatoes. The conditional concessions involve reductions in the import duty on radios, lard, and automobile tires and tubes, which will be effective during those fiscal years when the budget of expenditures of Haiti is promulgated in the amount of 40,000,000 gourdes or more. (1 gourde=\$0.20.)

The commodities on which the present favorable Haitian customs treatment has been bound against increase for the life of the agreement comprise: Plain and plate glass; iron and steel pipes and fittings; certain patent medicines and pharmaceutical products; a broad range of electrical machinery and appliances; automobiles, trucks, busses, automobile parts and accessories; smoked, salted, and pickled beef and pork, and certain other meat products; certain common wines; still mineral waters, and cigarettes.

The reductions in the Haitian duties range from one-fourth to two-thirds of the present duties, with seed potatoes made entirely free. Combined, the products affected by the reductions or assurances against increase were valued at \$1,463,000 in 1929 and \$623,000 in 1933, representing about 17 percent of United States exports to Haiti in those years.

In view of the large proportion of Haitian imports into the United States now admitted free of duty—89 percent during 1933—the principal American concession to Haiti consists of the guarantee of continued free entry for the period of the agreement of products amounting to \$772,000 or 53 percent of United States imports from that country during 1929, and \$477,000 or 59 percent of the total during 1933, the value of the past Haitian shipments of the commodities on which the duties are to be reduced having been slight. Assurance is given that sugar imported from Haiti on which a drawback of duty is allowed shall not be charged against the Haitian quota, under the sugar control system now in force.

The United States and Haiti continue the undertaking in the commercial agreement of 1926, which is to be supplanted by this agreement, to grant each other's commerce unconditional most-favored-nation treatment with respect to customs duties, charges, and formalities. Moreover, this principle is extended and applied also to other methods of regulating import trade, particularly quotas and exchange control. Should either country establish import quotas applying to the products of the other country, assurance is given of an allocation equivalent to the normal share of the total trade supplied by the other country. In the event that either country establishes any control of foreign exchange, most-favored-nation treatment of the other country is assured.

National treatment is provided with respect to all internal taxes and charges except for the existing differential taxes on cigarettes imported into Haiti and on coconut oil imported into the United States. The two countries also undertake to facilitate trade in the operation of their customs administration and in the uniform application of customs changes at all ports. With certain specified exceptions, no administrative ruling effecting advances in charges applicable to imports or imposing any new requirements on importations shall be effective until 30 days after official publication of such ruling. Provision is also made against the imposition of other than nominal penalties for errors in documentation of a clerical nature or those established as in good faith.

The agreement is to remain in force for at least 3 years, and may be terminated at the end of that period or subsequently upon 6 months' notice.

SANITARY CONVENTION BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND ARGENTINA

On May 24, 1935, the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States, and Dr. Felipe Espil, Ambassador of Argentina, signed a sanitary convention providing for cooperation between the two nations to prevent the introduction and spread of infectious and contagious plant and animal diseases and of insect pests. While recognizing the right of each country to exclude on sanitary grounds the products of the other, it provides that neither may prohibit the importation of plant and animal products originating in and coming from any zone of the other which the importing country finds to be free from animal and plant diseases or pests, or exposure to such diseases or pests, for the reason that such diseases or pests exist in other zones of the country. Under the Tariff Act, the Government of the United States has been required to establish embargoes by country instead of by zone, and the removal of this limitation will, it is expected, make for better understanding.

Whenever practicable, each Government will, before applying a new sanitary measure, consult with the Government of the other to insure that there will be as little injury to commerce with it as possible. The convention contains other similar provisions seeking to establish useful cooperation in sanitary matters between the two nations and to prevent misunderstandings and avoidable injury to trade arising from the application of sanitary measures.

GENERAL INTER-AMERICAN CONVENTION FOR TRADE MARK AND COMMERCIAL PROTECTION

The General Inter-American Convention for Trade Mark and Commercial Protection, signed at the first Pan American Trade-Mark Conference which met in Washington February 11-20, 1929, has been ratified by countries in the last four years. In the United States the convention was ratified by the Senate on December 16, 1930, signed by the President on February 11 and proclaimed by him on the 27th; in Haiti it was approved by the National Assembly on June 27 and promulgated by the President on July 2, 1931; in Nicaragua it was approved by Congress on May 30, 1934, and promulgated by the President on September 4; in Honduras it was approved by the President on September 25, 1934, and by the National Congress, in Decree no. 56, on January 29, and promulgated Jan. 31, 1935; in Panama ratification was published in the *Gaceta Oficial* for December

31, 1934; and in Peru the convention was approved in Ministerial Resolution no. 577 of December 6, 1934.

Ratification of the convention by Guatemala and Cuba was reported in the BULLETIN for March and May 1930, respectively.

THE FIRST SOUTH AMERICAN REGIONAL RADIO CONFERENCE

A more orderly development of radio communications in South America is expected from the application of the agreement reached at the First South American Regional Radio Conference which met in Buenos Aires from March 28 to April 10. With the rapid development of radio in South America, especially in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay, a regional agreement in accordance with the international regulations adopted at the Madrid conference in 1932 had become necessary if serious interference was to be avoided. The conference met at the invitation of Argentina with delegates from Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Paraguay, and Uruguay attending. An administrative agreement was signed after considerable discussion which is subject to the approval of the respective governments and open to adherence by the South American countries not represented. It provides for the allocation and use of frequencies; stipulates the minimum difference in frequency which must exist between stations which are likely to interfere with each other; adopts a formula for the determination of the power of radio transmitters; defines the tolerance of distortion through modulation; recommends the use of directive antenna systems; gives methods for determining the zone which a transmitter can serve efficiently, and fixes a maximum tolerance for harmonics. It also provides for the adoption on the part of the respective administrations of the necessary measures to prevent broadcasts which may be injurious to international relations among the signatory nations, and forbids the rebroadcasting of programs without permission from the station of origin. The minimum power at which a station can operate in an exclusive channel is to be 5 kilowatts.

The respective administrations are to endeavour to have the stations within their jurisdiction come as soon as possible with the frequency tolerance and limit of instability provided for in the General Radio Regulations annexed to the International Telecommunication Convention signed at Madrid in 1932. For broadcasting in international channels, however, the agreement recommends the reduction of the limits provided for in the regulations.

In addition to reporting to the Bureau of the International Telecommunication Union the respective administrations are to inform each other of the frequencies which they assign to their stations.

Before making an assignment the administrations are to consult the respective lists of frequency allocations and will not assign frequencies which will interfere with the services in other countries. In case an administration assigns a frequency which does interfere with another already assigned, the last one assigned will be abandoned. If a frequency assigned to a particular station is not used within two years it expires as far as the signatory countries are concerned unless notice to the contrary is given, in which case the registration will run for another two years.

Provision is made in the agreement for the holding of periodic conferences at intervals not longer than two years. The next is to be held in Rio de Janeiro in 1937.

ANNUAL MESSAGES

Message of the President of Uruguay.—The message of President Gabriel Terra of Uruguay to the Legislative Assembly on March 15, 1935, reviews, among others, the following activities in the fields of education, labor and social welfare during 1934:

In order to promote popular education the National Library was entrusted with the task of collecting and distributing the best works of national and foreign authors among the municipal libraries throughout the country. In places where municipal libraries did not exist, the National Library was to arrange for their establishment. Six libraries have already been opened.

A special commission, appointed by a decree of June 29, undertook a cultural extension tour throughout the Republic. The commission carried to inhabitants of towns, villages, and isolated farms selected works from the National Library, well known paintings from the National Museum of Fine Arts, and historic relics from the National Museum of History. This original tour, reported to be among the first of its kind in the world, was highly successful.

Considerable work was done by the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare during the past year to bring about a more efficient organization and supervision of the retirement and pension funds, especially through the act of January 11, 1934. This, among other things, prevented the bankruptcy of the public services pension fund, and extended the right to pensions to all industrial and commercial workers.

In order to coordinate supply and demand as regards labor, a National Employment Registry and local employment exchanges were established throughout the country. Employment for 23,000 workers was provided through municipal public works carried with the support of the National Government. Relief commissions in all the Departments of the Republic were able to provide allowances,

provisions, and articles of prime necessity to unemployed workers and their families. The National Labor Institute rendered valuable services especially in supervising the enforcement of laws relating to hours of labor, prevention of accidents, hygienic conditions in factories, and the employment of women and minors. Uniform regulations governing the closing of shops were provided through a law issued on April 13, 1934.

Message of the President of Venezuela.—On April 25, 1935, President J. V. Gómez presented to the Venezuelan Congress the report of his administration for 1934. In speaking of the relations between the nation and other countries, President Gómez mentioned especially the demarcation of boundaries with Colombia and with Brazil. Exploration by the Brazilian-Venezuelan Boundary Commission showed the existence of lands rich in minerals and other resources. On July 24 last, therefore, a decree was issued authorizing the study and construction of a highway from Ciudad Bolívar to the border to open the region for exploitation.

Measures taken to promote the economic well-being of the nation included the distribution of 10,000,000 bolívares as a subsidy to coffee and cacao growers; the Exchange Convention which stabilized foreign exchange; the creation of the Venezuelan Industrial Cattle Company to promote the meat industry; and the minting of silver coins to the amount of 20,000,000 bolívares.

Petroleum produced in 1934 amounted to 20,112,114 metric tons, an increase of 2,818,921 tons over the 1933 production. Of this amount 19,226,342 tons were exported.

Public works were carried out on a large scale, partly as an unemployment measure; they included not only new and important projects, but also the improvement and conservation of existing highways and monuments. Work on the free port of Turiamo has progressed rapidly and satisfactorily, and the piers at Puerto Cabello are being rebuilt. On the Great Western Highway, which goes to the eastern slopes of the Andes, nine large bridges and more than 30 small ones have been finished. Improvements have been carried out also on the Eastern Highway, the Highway to the Andes, the Windward Highway, and less important roads.

A special Veterinary and Breeding Service was created in December for the protection, investigation, and improvement of the animal industry throughout the country. A biological chemistry laboratory was likewise established to make analyses related to agriculture and stock raising.

Report of the Minister of Public Instruction, El Salvador.—Dr. Miguel Ángel Araujo, who holds the portfolios of Foreign Affairs, Justice, and Public Instruction, presented his report for the year 1934 to the National Assembly on February 20, 1935.

A total of 63,284 pupils was registered in the primary schools; of this number 56,373 attended Government schools, 1,694 private schools, and 5,217 municipal schools. Nine hundred sixty-eight schools were in session; of these 388 were rural schools, for which a new 3-year curriculum was issued last September. Of their 1,824 teachers, 571 were men and 1,253 women.

Secondary education was taught in 31 recognized institutions, 22 of which offered academic subjects and nine commercial.

There are two normal schools in El Salvador, one for men, the other for women. In the former the students and professors edit a fortnightly paper, *El Pensador*, planned to keep schools throughout the country in touch with new developments in education.

Physical education, to which increasingly marked attention is being given, is under the direction of the National Physical Education Committee, which cooperated with the Olympic Committee in preparing for the celebration of the Third Central American Olympic Games, held in March 1935 (see BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, June 1935).

CUBAN INSTITUTE FOR THE STABILIZATION OF COFFEE

The statutes for the administration of the Cuban Institute for the Stabilization of Coffee, created by decree-law 486 of September 14, 1934, were approved by President Mendieta on January 24, 1935. The Institute began functioning on the date of their publication in the *Gaceta Oficial*, March 7.

The organization was established to study matters relating to the planting, cultivation, harvesting, processing, classification, storage, delivery, sale, importation, and exportation of coffee; compile pertinent statistics, and recommend legislation. It is to be directed by a General Board, an Executive Committee, and a staff of salaried employees. The General Board is composed of 12 members, two of whom are to be owner growers, two tenant growers, one a grower and processor, two financial backers, with guaranties of coffee or of coffee estates, one a backer without such guaranties, two coffee roasters, and two experts. The Executive Committee, appointed by the General Board, is composed of three members, one of whom must be its chairman, and an administrative secretary without vote.

It is only recently that coffee has figured in Cuban economy. The intensive campaign waged by the Department of Agriculture to free the country from the dangers of dependence upon a single crop was particularly successful as regards coffee. By 1927 Cuba was producing 67 percent of the coffee consumed in the country, and a few years later had reached the point where there was an exportable surplus. In 1931 774 pounds, valued at \$153.00, were exported;

in 1932, 13,395,650 pounds, worth \$1,205,975. The following year the exports decreased to little more than 7,147,700 pounds, worth \$576,756, and preliminary figures issued by the Treasury Department of Cuba for 1934 show that only \$251,063 worth of coffee (the amount was not given) was exported in that year.

The Institute, which was established for an indefinite period, has therefore an opportunity to develop coffee growing in Cuba and make the product one of the staples of national economy.

COTTON CONTROL IN ARGENTINA

The National Cotton Board was created at the end of April under the chairmanship of the Minister of Agriculture. The Assistant Minister is vice-chairman, and the other members will be the Governor of the Province of the Chaco, a representative of the Province of Santiago de Estero, and delegates of growers and manufacturers. The board will regulate the cultural, technical, and commercial phases of the production and manufacture of cotton, including the selection of varieties best suited to each region, the creation of standard types, and the formation of producers' cooperative societies.

Until 25 years ago, the amount of cotton grown in Argentina was so negligible that no statistics as to production are available. In the next eight years the average planted increased from 4,300 to 7,600, but the following season, 1917-18, it jumped to 29,100, and since then has increased, with occasional slight setbacks, in a spectacular manner. The acreage devoted to cotton in 1933-34, the last season for which figures have been published, is 40 percent greater than that of the previous season, and eight and a half times as great as that of twelve years before, as may be seen from the table published below. The immediate stimulus for increased cotton growing was the decreased production elsewhere, notably in the United States.

COTTON PRODUCTION

Season	Area sown (acres)	Produc- tion of unginned cotton (metric tns)	Clean fiber		Cotton seed	
			Produc- tion (tons)	Exports (tons)	Produc- tion (tons)	Exports (tons)
1922-23.....	56,500	19,431	5,636	3,452	13,409	2,505
1923-24.....	154,600	43,860	12,759	5,057	30,075	4,544
1924-25.....	238,250	51,105	14,455	11,057	35,636	4,591
1925-26.....	272,000	103,263	29,347	22,642	72,057	15,116
1926-27.....	175,300	43,193	12,525	9,247	29,803	1,473
1927-28.....	219,000	82,785	24,920	17,911	56,337	8,204
1928-29.....	244,600	92,644	25,690	23,593	61,519	104
1929-30.....	301,500	115,404	32,614	27,597	79,240	1
1930-31.....	314,800	107,324	30,051	25,018	74,483	213
1931-32.....	336,450	124,991	36,686	28,272	84,333	149
1932-33.....	342,200	113,318	32,511	20,594	78,144	1,392
1933-34.....	481,850	155,236	43,357	27,111	106,833	316

RECENT LABOR LEGISLATION IN CUBA

The present administration in Cuba has taken great interest in making the labor legislation of that republic conform to modern standards. Two recent measures are laws no. 89 of April 12, 1935, creating the Superior Labor Council, and no. 148 of May 7, 1935, establishing employment offices in five provincial capitals.

The Superior Labor Council is to serve the Department of Labor in an advisory capacity. Its functions will include the study of labor bills, the investigation of the effectiveness of labor legislation, the codification of social welfare laws, suggestions for improving and amending social legislation, and the promotion of harmonious relations between employers and employees. The council will be composed of 22 members: the Secretary of Labor, chairman, the Director General of Labor, the Director of Hygiene and Social Welfare, the Secretary of the Superior Labor Council, 5 experts from the Department of Labor, the professor of industrial legislation in the University of Habana, 8 delegates from employer groups, and 8 from labor and employee organizations. It will meet twice a year in 45-day sessions, although special meetings may be called by the chairman at his discretion or at the request of a majority of the members.

The employment offices (*bolsas de trabajo*) are to be established in each provincial capital having no such organization, that is, in Pinar del Río, Matanzas, Santa Clara, Camagüey, and Santiago. There is none for the Province of Habana because it is expected that the office already established in the national capital will include the Province as well as the Federal District in its jurisdiction.

The five new offices are to operate under the direction of their respective Provincial Bureaus, and under the supervision of the Employment Office Division of the Bureau of Hygiene and Social Welfare of the National Department of Labor. Part of their expenses are to be included in municipal budgets.

Every employer must inform the employment office in his Province of all changes, temporary or permanent, among his employees, whether experts, office workers, or skilled or unskilled laborers. In the case of vacancies or any increase in his staff, the employer must consult the lists of unemployed suitable for his needs. Each labor union must report all cases of dismissal, employment, or reemployment affecting its members. No employer may hire any employee lacking a registration card from the office in his district.

The law went into effect 30 days from the date of its publication in the *Gaceta Oficial*, or on June 7, 1935.

THE ARMY AIR MAIL SERVICE IN BRAZIL

Established four years ago, the Army Air Mail Service in Brazil has extended its lines from 1,081 miles in August 1931, to 4,722 miles at the beginning of 1935. Supplementing the commercial airlines, the military air mail serves the double purpose of training Army personnel and connecting the capital with the most remote regions of the hinterland. From Rio de Janeiro the Army carries mail to Ceará, Piahy, Goyaz, Matto Grosso, Paraná, and Rio Grande do Sul. New lines and extensions are planned which will reach the frontier



ARMY AIR MAIL ROUTES IN BRAZIL.

The unbroken lines indicate routes in operation over which the weekly mileage flown is 11,160 miles. The lines of dashes are new routes and extensions projected.

with Bolivia, Peru, and Paraguay. The service started with 10 planes which offered training in long-distance flights to 37 pilots and 61 observers. As may be seen in the following table the service has shown a continued development since it was established, except in 1932, when it was interrupted because of the revolutionary movement in São Paulo. The figures for that year represent the traffic during the last quarter only.

The Brazilian army air mail service

Year	Length of lines	Number of planes	Pilots	Observers	Flights	Hours flown	Miles flown	Mail carried
	<i>Miles</i>							<i>Pounds</i>
1931 (5 mos.)-----	1,081	10	37	61	173	472	34,106	750
1932-----	2,255	11	13	17	20	215	19,765	287
1933-----	2,255	21	28	58	260	1,141	128,195	5,897
1934-----	4,722	22	64	121	284	4,276	382,631	22,990

EDIBLE OILS IN ARGENTINA

Under the auspices of the Ministry of Agriculture, Dr. Carlos García Mata, Commercial Attaché of the Argentine Embassy in Washington, has published an economic study of the production and consumption of edible oils in Argentina. In the study he points out that growers should select seeds that: 1, give a cold-resistant oil which for color, specific gravity, etc., may be used to blend with olive, peanut, cottonseed and other oils; 2, are easy to cultivate and may be grown in regions unsuitable for other products; and 3, have an international market and command a price sufficiently high to make subsidies unnecessary.

The book is particularly timely in view of the great increase in the production of edible oils in Argentina during the last few years, as may be appreciated by the following table:

PRODUCTION OF EDIBLE OILS

[In metric tons]

Year	Peanut	Turnip	Cottonseed	Sunflower	Others	Total
1923-----	12,086	3,001	870	-----	395	16,352
1924-----	6,571	4,790	1,487	53	273	13,174
1925-----	9,831	3,527	2,322	315	310	16,305
1926-----	11,608	3,180	3,367	-----	388	18,543
1927-----	14,555	4,566	3,961	58	306	23,446
1928-----	16,009	3,204	3,635	201	306	23,356
1929-----	11,601	5,306	4,732	25	234	21,898
1930-----	11,277	2,948	6,104	293	186	20,808
1931-----	10,536	7,478	6,600	67	239	24,920
1932-----	12,743	12,422	5,785	896	116	31,892
1933-----	13,685	12,661	8,781	2,678	200	38,005

SUMMER STUDY IN PANAMA AND MEXICO

By decrees of March 27, 1935, the Center of Pedagogic and Hispano-American Studies in Panama was established as a part of the National Institute, with the Assistant Secretary of Public Instruction, Señor José Pezet, as director *ex officio*, and Señor Salomón de la Selva as executive secretary.

The Center is planning to hold a summer school with courses in history and social problems, education, languages and literature, art and folklore, and journalism from July 8 to August 17, 1935. Eminent authorities in each field from North, Central, and South America have been invited to take part in the summer session.

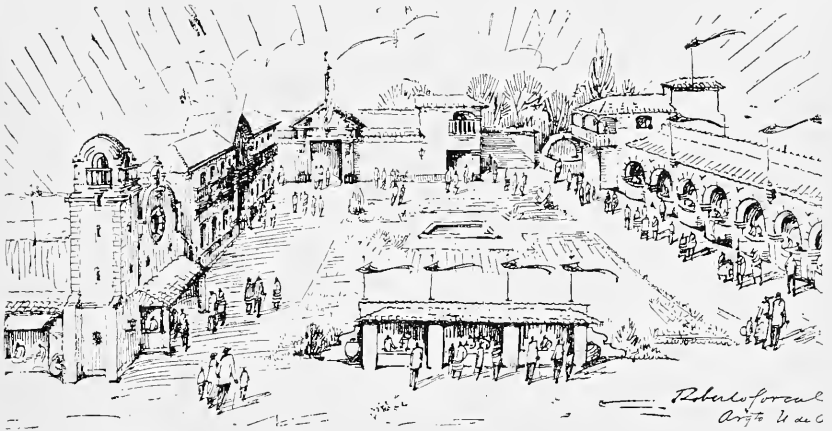
Registration for the fifteenth annual session of the summer school for foreign students conducted by the National University of Mexico began on June 24; classes start on July 1 and will continue to August 14. Courses in Spanish and French are offered beginners, while for advanced undergraduates and graduate students there are courses in Spanish, French, history, sociology, government, education, art, and music. Mexican law and business procedure are treated in two courses open to students sponsored by accredited firms, regardless of academic standing. As a result of requests received from students with no knowledge of Spanish, several new courses dealing with history, literature, etc., will be given in English this year. Six week-end excursions of one or two days have been planned to notable archaeological, historical, and scenic spots in the vicinity of the capital.

The Committee on Cultural Relations with Latin America has announced its tenth seminar in Mexico from July 3-23, 1935. While the chief emphasis will, as in the past, be on Mexico, some study of Latin America as a whole, particularly in its relations to the United States, will be included. The three weeks of lectures, round-table discussions, and a field trip will be supplemented by post-seminar visits, of a week apiece, to Oaxaca and Michoacan.

CHILEAN HISTORICAL-CULTURAL EXPOSITION IN SANTIAGO

On December 14, 1934, the Chilean Historical-Cultural Exposition opened in Santiago for several months. It was planned, in the words of Señor Carlos Silva Vildósola, a noted Chilean journalist, "to offer an artistic spectacle, instruction for the public, an industrial exhibition, and a place for wholesome recreation."

Among the exhibits that of the Posada del Corregidor, one of the oldest and most famous restaurants in Santiago, attracted special attention; it presented in a series of paintings the most colorful aspects of colonial life—official, religious, and everyday. Also noteworthy



THE CHILEAN HISTORICAL-CULTURAL EXPOSITION.

This colonial plaza was one of the features of the national exposition held in Santiago during the past several months.

was the pavilion containing a map of Chile more than 275 feet long, which showed graphically historic, cultural, economic, and other pertinent facts about the country. The Ministry of Education had an effective display of handicraft from the rural, city, and normal schools throughout the country.

STATISTICAL REPORTS OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

The Statistical Division of the Pan American Union has compiled and recently published reports on the foreign trade of Honduras, El Salvador, the Dominican Republic, and Paraguay for 1933, and a general survey of the trade of all Latin America for the same year. A report on the foreign trade of Haiti for the fiscal year ended September 30, 1934, compiled from the report of the fiscal representative of the Republic for that year, has also been prepared and is now in press.

In addition to the above regular reports of the Foreign Trade Series, the Division has prepared for publication in the BULLETIN an advance report on the trade of Argentina for 1934, a statement of the trade of the United States with Latin America for the same year, compiled from reports of the United States Department of Commerce, and an article on the trade of Chile with the other Republics of South America for the years 1925 to 1934, inclusive (see p. 560).

The Division is now engaged in the preparation of reports, compiled from official sources, on the foreign trade of Panama, Argentina, Colombia, Cuba, Costa Rica, and Ecuador, for the latest available years.

The reports not published in the BULLETIN are separately printed and distributed upon request.

BRIEF NOTES

ADDITION TO THE MINING CODE OF ARGENTINA

Law 12161, signed by President Justo on March 26, 1935, provided for the incorporation of an additional section to the Mining Code of Argentina. The new section deals with the legal control of deposits of petroleum and liquid hydrocarbons, and consists of eight chapters on the rights of the Government and of individuals; exploration; exploitation; obligations of concessionaires; reserves; taxes; rights of way and pipe lines; and mixed companies, that is, those in which the Government holds some of the shares.

NEW HIGHWAY COMPLETED IN CUBA

According to information supplied by Vice Consul Herman C. Vogenitz, the highway connecting the port of Cienfuegos with the Central Highway has been completed and was opened to traffic on April 14, 1935. It is expected that the road, which is about 27 miles long, will increase the importance of Cienfuegos as a distributing center for the Province of Santa Clara.

ANTI-TUBERCULOSIS FEDERATION IN ARGENTINA

Representatives of anti-tuberculosis organizations met in Buenos Aires on April 23, 1935, under the chairmanship of Dr. Gregorio Aráoz Alfaro, and approved the establishment of an anti-tuberculosis federation. According to the resolution, the purpose of the new organization is to intensify, strengthen, and broaden the campaign against tuberculosis throughout the country. The federation will function at first in two sections, one devoted to questions of treatment and public welfare, the other to scientific studies. The meeting appointed an organizing committee, to hold office for one year, composed of one representative from each of fourteen institutions.

NO COEDUCATION IN PERUVIAN SCHOOLS

Coeducation has been prohibited in the public and private schools of Lima and Callao, Peru, by a Government order issued recently. The order cancels all licenses previously granted for mixed schools, whether primary, secondary, commercial or industrial, as well as those granted for the operation of school sections for boys and girls alternately. Furthermore, no woman will be allowed to be the principal of a school for boys or to direct schools for girls with branches for boy pupils, or vice versa. As justification for this measure, it is contended that the

number of girls' schools now existing in Lima and its suburbs is sufficient to meet the need, and that coeducation is, therefore, unnecessary.

CHILEAN INSTITUTES FOR THE PROMOTION OF MINING AND INDUSTRY

An Institute for the Promotion of Mining and Industry in the North was created for each of the Chilean Provinces of Tarapacá and Antofagasta by law no. 5,546, which went into effect on the date of its publication in the *Diario Oficial*, January 2, 1935. The institutes will function according to the principles governing the Mining Credit Bank, the Institute of Industrial Credit, and the regulations to the law when issued, but their spheres of action are limited to their respective Provinces. The initial capital of the institutes will be supplied by 20 percent of the shares in the Chilean Nitrate and Iodine Sales Corporation belonging to the Government, to be divided equally between them. This money will be used for loans to industrial or mining enterprises, although 25 percent may be used to foster mining and industry by exploration of mining deposits; construction of means of communication to make commercially exploitable mines accessible; waterworks; the diffusion of technical information; and the construction and exploitation of fishing ports.

WOMEN ELECTED TO MUNICIPAL COUNCILS IN CHILE

Twenty women, representing the conservative, liberal, democrat and radical parties, as well as two without party affiliations, were elected to municipal councils throughout Chile in the elections held on April 7, 1935, according to *Nosotras*, organ of the "Legión Femenina América", a feminist organization. At the time this compilation was made reports had not as yet been received from Magallanes. The municipal elections of April 7 were notable in that it was the first time that women and foreigners exercised the right to vote in Chile.

NEW REGULATIONS FOR FINANCING LOW-COST DWELLINGS IN CHILE

The financing of houses for workingmen in Chile has been for the last four years in the hands of the Mortgage Credit Bank, in accordance with the provisions of decree with force of law no. 33, of March 12, 1931, which amended law no. 4945 of the previous February 6, promulgated to stimulate low-cost housing. The decree not only provided for the construction of low-cost dwellings for workingmen by the National Low-Cost Housing Committee, but also permitted the granting of loans to individuals wishing to build houses for their workers; to the owners of small holdings in agricultural settlements; to incorporated associations; to cooperative building societies; to municipalities; and to similar entities, and made it possible to borrow money for the development of workers' gardens.

On January 26 of this year President Alessandri signed law no. 5579, authorizing the President to issue, through the Housing Bureau, bonds to the amount of not more than 50,000,000 pesos. The proceeds may be applied to the purchase of improved lands, and to loans for buying lots, improved or unimproved, in instalments, in accordance with decree with force of law no. 33. Regulations of the law were issued on February 18.

AGRICULTURAL-MECHANICAL VOCATIONAL SCHOOL IN THE STATE OF SÃO PAULO

By a State decree of April 6, 1935, the establishment of a coeducational agricultural-mechanical vocational school in Espirito Santo do Pinhal was approved. The school is designed to train men to be skilled farm hands, farm mechanics, and overseers and administrators of estates, and to give women the necessary preparation for becoming homemakers in the country. The school will have its main building, with class rooms, laboratories, and shops, in the city, but will also have a farm where the students may acquire practical experience.

PANAMA HATS FROM ECUADOR

To protect the Panama hat industry of Ecuador, President J. M. Velasco Ibarra issued two decrees on February 25 and March 6, 1935, requiring that all customs offices refuse export permits to shipments containing hats not stamped or ticketed in English and Spanish "Made in Ecuador".

SEVENTH NATIONAL EDUCATION CONGRESS IN BRAZIL

The Seventh National Education Congress of Brazil, to be held in Rio de Janeiro under the auspices of the Brazilian Education Association from June 22 to July 7, was to be devoted chiefly to the topic of physical education.

EXHIBITION OF HISPANO-AMERICAN BOOKS IN QUITO

To celebrate the tenth anniversary of the literary review *América*, the editors plan to hold a Hispano-American Book Exhibition in Quito on August 10, 1935. Authors, cultural institutions, and publishers in America and in Spain have been invited to contribute. The Government of Ecuador is cooperating in this enterprise by providing prizes, medals, and diplomas; it has also agreed to establish, under the auspices of the Ministry of Public Education, a Library of Hispano-American Authors, using the books presented to the exhibition as a nucleus. *América* is also offering, in connection with the exhibition, two prizes of 1,500 sucres each for the best unpublished novel and volume of essays submitted by native writers.



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BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

THE THIRD
PAN AMERICAN



RED CROSS CONFERENCE
RIO DE JANEIRO

AUGUST

1935

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D.C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

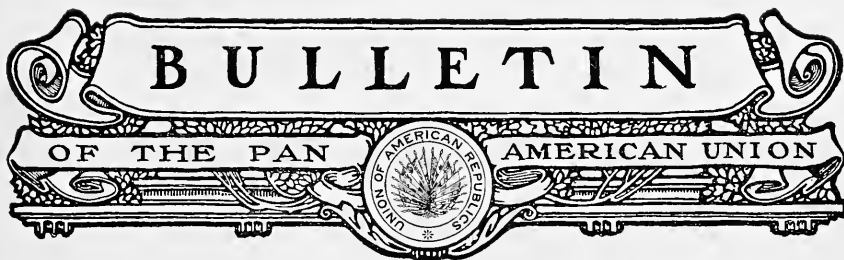
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The meeting of the Third Pan American Red Cross Conference in Rio de Janeiro next September is another unmistakable manifestation of the eagerness for universal peace and human solidarity.

—GETULIO VARGAS,
President of the United States of Brazil.



Vol. LXIX

AUGUST 1935

No. 8

THE THIRD PAN AMERICAN RED CROSS CONFERENCE

FOREWORD

By CORDELL HULL

*Secretary of State of the United States and Chairman of the Governing Board of
the Pan American Union*

IT is with great pleasure that I comply with the request to write a foreword to the special number of the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union dedicated to the Third Pan American Red Cross Conference.

In a very real sense the work of the Red Cross Societies is the highest expression of the spirit of constructive Pan Americanism and is a symbol of the standards which should prevail in all inter-American relations.

Everything unites and nothing separates the Red Cross societies in their great humanitarian work. Material contributions and expressions of sympathy in times of national disaster draw the nations together. But even more binding is the knowledge that in such periods of stress all are facing common problems and hope to learn from taking counsel together not only how to meet emergency situations but also how to build for the future on ever stronger foundations of national health and welfare.

"I serve" is the motto of the Red Cross! It does not specify whom it serves: individual, school, community, nation, the family of nations; all are the object of its beneficent labors. The Third Pan American Red Cross Conference which is to assemble next month in the beautiful capital of Brazil affords still another useful opportunity for the several Red Cross societies to exchange views to their mutual advantage and to expand further their cooperative effort. May a sense of social responsibility again direct deliberations to forward-looking conclusions and beneficial activities.



DR. JOSÉ CARLOS DE MACEDO SOARES
MINISTER OF FOREIGN RELATIONS OF BRAZIL.



Founded in 1908 and declared a 'national institution' by decree in 1910, the Brazilian Red Cross has devoted itself to its mission in Brazil—everything having to do with social service—with unselfishness, efficiency, and constancy. The meeting of the Third Pan American Red Cross Conference in Rio de Janeiro will surely be an added source of gratification to Brazil and to humanity.

—MARIO DE PIMENTEL BRANDÃO,
*Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary,
Secretary General of the Ministry of Foreign
Relations of Brazil.*



GENERAL ALVARO TOURINHO
PRESIDENT OF THE BRAZILIAN RED CROSS.

A MESSAGE FROM BRAZIL

By Dr. ALVARO CARLOS TOURINHO

Brigadier General, Medical Corps; Director of the Health Services of the Brazilian Army; and President of the Brazilian Red Cross

THE Red Cross societies of the American continent will hold their third meeting this coming September.

To the city of Rio de Janeiro, by a decision of the last assembly, held in Washington, falls the honor of being host to the Third Pan American Red Cross Conference.

There is no work more universal in scope than that of the Red Cross, which ever responds to the appeal of charity and of justice. The Society is always on call for humanitarian service, whether the need arises from a cataclysm of nature, from one of the scourges which devastate mankind, or from a catastrophe unleashed by men.

When an overpowering and irresistible instinct commands flight from afflicted places and contaminated individuals, the Red Cross appears, to moderate and ameliorate conditions.

The experience of every kind of calamity, the custom of sacrifice, the habit of unselfishness, instil profound lessons. More instructive and profitable still, however, is the experience composed of many experiences. Hence the necessity for the League of Red Cross Societies and for frequent contacts among the institutions consecrated to the same invaluable task.

Persuaded of this, the Brazilian Red Cross, in convoking the Third Pan American Conference, has the duty, as pleasant as unequivocal, of requesting the cooperation of Governments and of similar societies throughout the world.

Therefore the meeting in Rio de Janeiro is perforce assured of success, with each and every one making his contribution, exchanging detailed information about activities, making suggestions, joining in the discussion.

As president of the Brazilian Red Cross, I have made it a point to devote all my efforts to the creation of an atmosphere in which the only thought shall be the welfare of all and the single purpose the realization of the desire for world-wide solidarity.

THE THIRD PAN AMERICAN RED CROSS CONFERENCE

By ERNEST J. SWIFT

Secretary General of the League of Red Cross Societies

OF the 61 national Red Cross Societies in the world which constitute the membership of the League of Red Cross Societies, 20—almost exactly one-third of the total number—operate in the Americas. The first Red Cross Society in the New World was that of Peru, founded in 1879, and during the ensuing 40 years the foundation of Red Cross organizations were laid in a number of other American States. But it may be said that the Red Cross began to make a real appeal to public opinion in most of the American countries only during and after the World War. The phenomenal growth of the American Red Cross during the war years, and the tremendous extension which Red Cross work in the United States has taken on during the post-war period, is, of course, common knowledge. The Canadian Red Cross, in the same way, has maintained the prestige and many of the activities which it acquired between 1914 and 1918. Less widely known, perhaps, is the steady growth of interest in the Red Cross movement in the Latin American countries which has been a phenomenon of the post-war years. Those who are best qualified to judge attribute this development to the fact that Latin American opinion, previous to the foundation of the League of Red Cross Societies, was inclined to regard the Red Cross as a wartime organization and did not associate it with peace-time work.

The extension of Red Cross activities into the peace-time field, so that Red Cross organization became a permanent asset in the struggle for the alleviation of distress and suffering at all times, changed this situation, and the Secretariat of the League, when it turned its attention to the American continent and sought to secure the cooperation of public-spirited groups in Latin America for Red Cross organization and activity on the basis of the new program, found a fruitful field awaiting it.

The Pan American Red Cross conferences, of which the first was held in Buenos Aires in 1923 and the second in Washington three years later, have been among the most effective of the methods employed for maintaining the enthusiasm aroused among Red Cross leaders in the Americas, for facilitating the exchange between them of views and experiences, and for promoting work on lines of proved value in fields of recognized usefulness.

Nine years have elapsed since the Washington conference. The interval should have been shorter, but circumstances beyond the control of those responsible for the organization of the Third Conference necessitated its postponement until this year. The Brazilian Red Cross, whose representatives at Washington had hospitably offered to be the hosts of the next conference and whose invitation had been accepted with alacrity by their colleagues, was plunged into mourning by the death of the distinguished president who had done so much for its development, Marshal do Amaral, and of its active and talented secretary general, Dr. Getulio dos Santos. The death of Dr. Amaury de Medeiros was another grievous loss, and during the ensuing years conditions in different parts of South America created a situation which could hardly be regarded as favorable to the success of the proposed conference. Last year, however, this situation so far improved that the Brazilian Red Cross felt able to make the definite proposal that the conference should be held in 1935. This decision was promptly and cordially endorsed, not only by the societies directly interested, but also by the Board of Governors of the League, and approved by the Fifteenth International Red Cross Conference in October last.

The change in general world conditions which has come about during these past nine years has been paralleled by changes equally fundamental in the international organization of the Red Cross. The transformation engendered by the world economic crisis, which has brought us from the prosperity of 1926 to the depression of 1935, has had as its natural corollary a corresponding transformation in the program of activities of Red Cross societies. The Red Cross has had everywhere to throw its weight into operations aiming at the direct relief of human distress—operations which in practice have meant the provision on a large scale of food, clothing, medical care and recreation facilities for the unemployed and their families. Responsibility on a scale hitherto undreamed of, at least in peace time, has fallen on the Red Cross. It is in the highest degree encouraging to observe that the majority of Red Cross societies, because of the character of their organization, their high standard of efficiency and their capacity for extension, have been able to shoulder these responsibilities successfully. They have been able to do so because the public has shown itself willing in almost every country to subscribe to the Red Cross and to support the Red Cross as liberally in times of depression as in more prosperous times. Moreover, the emergency has shown that the tradition of volunteer work for the Red Cross stands in as high honor today as ever. The small groups of professional Red Cross workers in each country have been enabled, through the

assistance of such volunteers, to carry an enormously heavier load of work than they could possibly have undertaken unaided.

At the same time, the necessity for carrying out a greater volume of work with limited resources has naturally entailed a tendency on the part of national societies to reverse the policy of reaching out into new fields which had been manifest during the prosperity epoch. The difference in character of the requests for information received by the Secretariat of the League is symptomatic in this regard. We are no longer asked as frequently as in the past for information regarding the possibilities of new fields of Red Cross activity. There is, on the other hand, a constant and increasing demand for detailed information regarding methods of operation in fields in which the Red Cross has already proved its usefulness.

Happily, the foresight of those responsible for the policy of the League had prepared the international organization for the difficult years before it. Participants in the Washington Conference of 1926 will recall that at that time the international organization of the Red Cross was still a subject of uncertainty and controversy. Two years later, at the Thirteenth International Red Cross Conference held at The Hague, the statutes of the International Red Cross, in which the position of the League was recognized and its functions defined, were adopted unanimously. The draft of this settlement was the result of long and arduous negotiations in which Judge Huber, the then newly elected president of the International Red Cross Committee, and Judge Payne, chairman of the League of Red Cross Societies, with Colonel Draudt, one of the vice-chairmen, played leading parts. Judge Payne, of whose wise leadership the League of Red Cross Societies was deprived through his death in January of this year, was directly instrumental in bringing about the accord reached at The Hague.

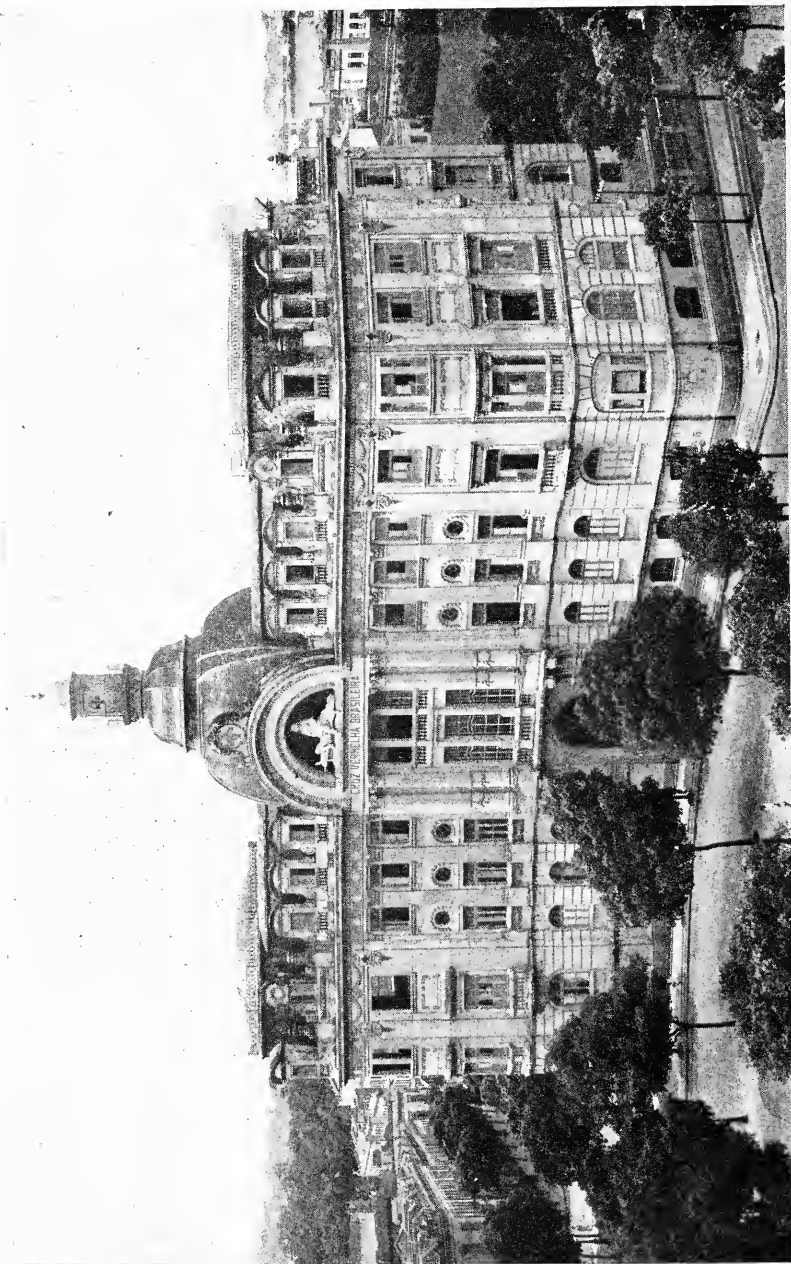
The League will long miss Judge Payne's firm and wise guidance, but the Board has lost no time in electing to succeed him the new chairman of the American Red Cross, Admiral Cary T. Grayson, whose wide sympathies and broad international outlook give assurance that he will follow faithfully in his predecessor's footsteps, and the destinies of the League are in safe hands.

This brief sketch of the international evolution of the Red Cross since the time of the meeting of the Second Pan American Conference would be incomplete without mention of the most recent in the international series of conferences—the fifteenth, which was held in Tokyo in October 1934. The holding of this conference in distant Japan was regarded by many, when Prince Tokugawa's invitation was accepted in Brussels in 1930, as an audacious experiment. The experiment,

however, was crowned with an unqualified success, the delegates at the conference numbering over 250, from more than 50 different countries. Fifteen of the twenty national societies of the Americas appointed delegates to the Fifteenth Conference, seven of them—Brazil, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Peru and El Salvador, as well as Canada and the United States—sending representatives across the Pacific especially to attend it.

At Rio this autumn, as in Tokyo last year, the agenda have been prepared so as to cover practically every phase of the work undertaken by Red Cross societies in normal times. As Judge Payne was fond of saying, the Red Cross can make a major contribution to the cause of international cooperation by laying the emphasis in its international meetings on the things that unite and not on the things that divide. It is sometimes suggested that matters which do not lend themselves to controversy fail to arouse widespread interest. International Red Cross meetings of recent years have disproved this, and we may feel assured that at Rio de Janeiro in September there will be no controversy and very genuine interest. It is encouraging to note that by the end of April, six full months before the date set for the meeting of the conference, the League Secretariat had already been apprised of the appointment of large and representative delegations which will attend on behalf of a number of Red Cross societies, and that of the international organizations invited to attend in an advisory capacity almost all had notified their decision to arrange for representation.

The anxiety of the League to develop more effective cooperation with the Red Cross societies of the Americas will be symbolized by the attendance, on its behalf, of the new chairman of the Board of Governors in person, the Secretary General and two specially qualified members of the Secretariat. It is our hope that from the Rio Conference there will emerge a definite plan for the more intensive promotion of Red Cross activities throughout Latin America, as well as a redefinition of the methods by which Red Cross leaders in the American countries can carry into practice the ideal of service which lies at the basis of the Red Cross movement. For such an examination of aims and methods we are assured of having a particularly congenial atmosphere under the hospitable auspices of the Brazilian Red Cross, whose destinies are directed by an unusually devoted and talented group of men under the presidency of Surgeon General Tourinho.



NATIONAL HEADQUARTERS OF THE BRAZILIAN RED CROSS, RIO DE JANEIRO.

AGENDA OF THE THIRD PAN AMERICAN RED CROSS CONFERENCE¹

RIO DE JANEIRO, SEPTEMBER 15-26, 1935

I. ORGANIZATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF NATIONAL RED CROSS SOCIETIES

(a) Relations of the central committees with their respective Governments. Exemptions and facilities granted to the national Red Cross societies. Cooperation with the health and school authorities.

(b) Formation and organization of local Red Cross committees. Cooperation with the central committee. National conferences.

(c) Cooperation between the national societies and with the International Red Cross organs.

(d) Recruiting of members. Means for increasing the revenues of the national societies.

(e) Extension and intensification of propaganda. Red Cross publications and posters, the wireless, the press, the cinema, lectures, etc.

II. COLLABORATION OF THE NATIONAL RED CROSS SOCIETIES WITH OTHER INSTITUTIONS FOLLOWING SIMILAR OBJECTIVES

(a) In the national field.

(b) In the international field.

III. EVOLUTION OF THE RED CROSS MOVEMENT ON THE AMERICAN CONTINENT SINCE THE SECOND PAN AMERICAN RED CROSS CONFERENCE

Reports by the national societies on their activities.

IV. ADAPTATION OF THE GENERAL PROGRAM OF THE RED CROSS IN PEACETIME TO THE SPECIAL CONDITIONS OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLES

V. DISASTER RELIEF

(a) Formation by each national Society of a relief committee with representatives on the local committees. Collaboration of these relief committees with each other and with the Secretariat of the League.

(b) Plan of action of the relief committee when disaster strikes. Collaboration between neighboring countries.

(c) Training of personnel. Classes in first-aid.

¹ A reduction of 25 percent from the regular steamer fares from New York is offered by the Munson and Furness Lines to those attending the Conference.

(d) Organization of first-aid posts on highways.

(e) The role of aviation in disasters. Employment of private aeroplanes for the transport of the sick in peacetime.

(f) The role of the national societies in the working of the International Relief Union. The position with regard to the ratifications of the International Convention.

VI. HEALTH AND SOCIAL ASSISTANCE

(a) Red Cross hospitals, dispensaries and health centres.

(b) The Red Cross and the protection of mother and child.

(c) The role of the national Red Cross societies in propaganda and the campaign against the social evils (tuberculosis, venereal disease, cancer, mental disease, alcoholism, drug addiction).

(d) The action of the Red Cross societies in the campaign against malaria and tropical diseases.

(e) The Red Cross and rural hygiene.

(f) Participation of the societies of the American Continent in the prevention of blindness and in aid to the blind.

(g) The health of merchant seamen. Wireless consultations.

(h) The action of the Red Cross societies in the protection of migrants.

(i) The Red Cross and social service, with special reference to the unemployed and their families. The training of social workers.

VII. NURSING

(a) The organization and functions of Red Cross nursing services. Hospital nurses, visiting nurses (general nursing, maternity and infant welfare, school hygiene, the campaign against tuberculosis, etc.).

(b) The nurse and voluntary aid in disaster.

(c) The training of a team of nurses and first-aid workers (Samaritans). Guiding principles for the creation and improvement of schools of nursing. Technical collaboration of the Secretariat of the League in this field.

VIII. JUNIOR RED CROSS

(a) Organization and technical improvement of Junior Red Cross sections within the framework of national societies. Promotion of the relations with the school authorities and the teachers. Methods of propaganda. Organization of classes and lectures on the Junior Red Cross for teachers and the pupils of normal schools.

(b) The Junior Red Cross and the spirit of mutual service among school children. Activities on behalf of children in distress.

(c) The health work of the Junior Red Cross.

(d) The role of the Junior Red Cross in international friendship.

RIO DE JANEIRO

By ANNIE D'ARMOND MARCHANT

Assistant Editor, Boletim da União Pan-Americana

RIO is a city of so many aspects, each one so absorbing in itself and all so deftly woven together, that it is difficult to point to this or that particular feature as imparting the almost mystic charm with which it entralls its devotees.

One thing is certain, despite the glamour and importance of the city as a city, and regardless of whatever aspect one may attempt to explore, Rio cannot be divorced from its setting, the magnificent theatre prepared and furnished, who knows how many æons ago, with every requisite for spectacular grandeur most pleasing to the eye and satisfying to the soul. Together, the city and the environment make Rio. Without its brilliant city the site would be but an empty stage. Without its stage the city could not be Rio. Perhaps few of its residents have ever attempted to disentangle the two or to figure out just how such and such effects are produced. While there, one becomes identified with the whole, even as the city and its environment are identified with each other. It is only when away from the lure of the place that any cold, calculating attempt at dissecting can be carried out, and that only so far as analyzing the setting is concerned.

It is seldom that Nature proceeds with such lavish and unbounded prodigality and at the same time with such an apparent intent of purpose toward dramatic effect as that displayed in the preparation of this delightful spot for a lovely city.

Not infrequently some text book, or other historical account of Rio, makes a statement as to when Rio de Janeiro was "discovered", and to one who knows Rio, the statement seems quite logical. To be sure, there it was. There was Rio, just ready to be discovered, built up and inhabited. There was incomparable Guanabara Bay, almost land-locked like a beautiful inland sea, with its flock of verdant islands—109 to be exact—the largest of which is the Ilha do Governador. The entrance to the harbor must have been as arresting then as it is today, with its granite sentinels dramatically placed for effect, its narrow deceiving inlet and gorgeous scene suddenly bursting into view. Just past the entrance and advancing into the bay was the present port, while to either side the shore swerved away in many a graceful scallop offering idyllic habitation by the sea, and superbly at the rear rose the forest-clad mountain ranges in an all-inclusive



THE CITY AND BAY OF RIO

protective embrace. And in this natural setting even certain stupendous monumental effects were not neglected. Shaped in granite there were the Pão de Assucar, Corcovado, Gavea,¹ unique shapes destined to spell "Rio" for all time the world over. And back among the mountain ranges lay the Stone Giant, chest uncovered, face upturned to the sky, clear cut, classic, severe, and overpoweringly natural. This effect is obtained from a combination of several granite mountain peaks when seen from a certain angle.

And if nature, or providence, was munificent in the extreme, man has certainly proved himself worthy of the gift. Today Rio, with a population of 1,586,000 inhabitants, including the Federal District, can proudly compare with the most advanced cities of the world. Esthetically it yields to none, with its broad avenues, imposing modern buildings, beautiful parks and gardens; culturally, its seats of learning, its internationally known institutes of art and science, its theaters, its museums, libraries, and learned societies speak for themselves; recreationally there are its magnificent beaches, unsurpassed anywhere in the world, its country club, its golf courses, its tennis courts, its regattas and racing courses. Its illumination is said to surpass that of any other city. Transportation facilities are

¹ Sugar Loaf, Hunchback, Crow's Nest.



RIO DE JANEIRO AS SEEN FROM CORCOVADO.

numerous, varied and up to date, providing rapid transit facilities to all parts of the District—to the far-flung residential sections by modern electric trolley cars, to the suburbs by railway and trolley, to Nietheroy, across the bay, by an excellent ferry service. There are also numerous bus lines both for regular service and for sight-seeing. From a sanitary point of view Rio is high in the list of clean and healthful cities.

Add to this that Rio is a great maritime port, an important commercial and industrial center, and the seat of Government of a vast country covering nearly half of South America, yet in all this busy mart there is scarcely a place where it is possible to forget the wide blue sea, the forest, the mountains—for their presence pervades and dominates the scene, but with a dominance serene and protective, eternal and unchanging. And this perhaps is one of the most potent reasons for Rio's appeal—the certain knowledge that despite the growth of the city, the acceleration of its tempo, these things will remain unspoiled and unchanged.

The manner in which the city grew, which after all was the only logical way in which it could grow, explains its close amalgamation with nature. It began on an elevation near the shore, called Morro



RIO DE JANEIRO

do Castello, then spread over the part now comprising the commercial center, and from there branched out into residential sections on all sides. On the inviting coastline of the bay it followed along what is today Avenida Beira Mar with its fine mansions and beautiful landscaped gardens, along the delightful little bay of Botafogo (offspring of the main bay), around which one of the first aristocratic residential sections of Rio grew up, and finally, by means of two tunnels blasted through solid rock, gained the open seaboard. There it took possession of the magnificent coastline leading to the entrance of the bay, and formed the famous bathing resort of Copacabana.

Inland, the residential sections stretched back through the mountain valleys, covering lowlands, climbing slopes, invading hills. Today there seems no limit to which these sections may not attain, with their wide boulevards and parks, their imposing residences and modest homes surrounded by luxurious gardens, which in many cases fraternize openly with the forest itself. An excursion into any one of these sections provides a rare treat.

A ride through Tijuca leads to Tijuca Mountain, which affords one of the most spectacular automobile drives to be enjoyed anywhere in the world. The road, after leaving habitations behind, passes



N FROM SUGAR LOAF.

over mountains and through forests, discloses breath-taking views, and finally comes through the modern Avenida Niemeyer down to the sea at Copacabana.

Larangeiras, another residential section, gives access to the railway by which a special train ascends to the top of Corcovado, 3,329 feet above sea level. Many visitors have expressed their inability to describe this trip, moved no doubt by a spirit of loyalty to that elusive quality attaching to many aspects of Rio, which defies description, a sort of tacit understanding between the one who sees and understands and the thing seen and understood. And the same thing applies to the ascent of the Sugar Loaf in another section of the city, which is quite different, in regard to both the means of ascent and the view displayed. The two mountains seem near together as they stand out to meet the traveller entering the port; nevertheless, by land they are reached by devious and roundabout ways. However, they are linked as offering the two most sensational experiences of the kind to be enjoyed by visitors to Rio, who in each case are privileged to enjoy the combination of two masterpieces—the natural monument itself and the engineering genius that has made its ascent possible. But apart from their scenic grandeur



PRAÇA MARECHAL FLORIANO, RIO DE JANEIRO.

The principal square is surrounded by notable buildings, including the Academy of Fine Arts and the National Library. From the municipal building at the right of the photograph a group of modern structures housing offices and motion-picture theaters leads to the Senate Chamber or, as it is more commonly known, the "Monroe Palace."



Courtesy of Paul Meklenburg.

THE MUNICIPAL THEATER.

This theater and opera house, which ranks among the finest in the world, is one of the imposing buildings on the Avenida Rio Branco at Praça Marechal Floriano.

these mountains really have a personality of their own; at least, so it appears to those returning home, to whom they seem to extend a welcome from afar.

There are no dull moments during the ascent to Corcovado, as the way winds through forests and around crags. For every moment there is a sensation and a surprise. The first stop is at Silvestre, a veritable sylvan retreat where one can meander through the woods for hours on tolerably level winding roads. Always cool, always delightful, and provided with a good hotel, it is one of Rio's favorite mountain resorts. Beyond Silvestre the train spans a wide chasm, traveling over a steeply inclined steel bridge, and arrives farther up at another delectable retreat, Paineiras, also provided with a hotel and delightful forest roads. From there the train proceeds to its terminus and the passengers do the last little stretch on foot to the top, whence they gaze entranced on the whole incredible scene below. A recently added culmination is a gigantic figure of Christ, 115 feet high, which surmounts the summit.

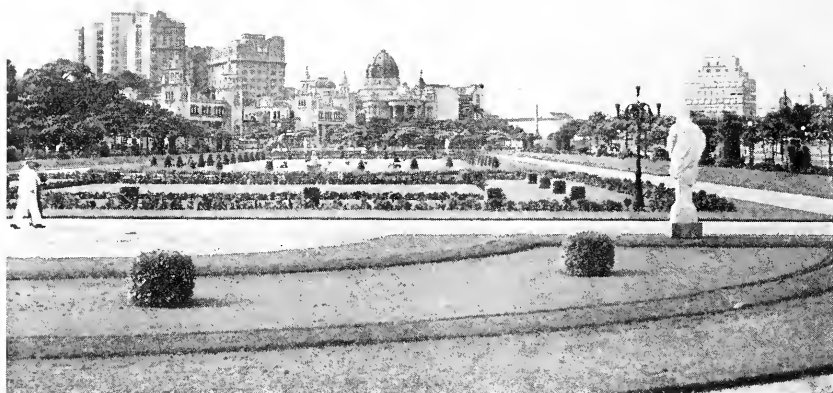
The top of Sugar Loaf is reached by a marvellous device. A car running on a cable swings first from the ground to an adjoining mountain, the Urca, and from there through sheer space to the top of the Sugar Loaf, providing an unforgettable experience for its passengers.

A ride through Botafogo leads to the Botanical Garden, famous for its great variety of plants from all over Brazil and from other parts of the world, all duly classified and labeled. This garden was started in colonial times by John VI of Portugal, who planted there the first royal palm brought into the country, the ancestor of all the beautiful palm trees that embellish the city today, including the famous avenue of palms in the garden itself. And strange to relate, the mother palm still stands tall and straight where it was planted by John VI himself, about a century and a quarter ago.

On the opposite side, almost facing the Garden, is a populous section surrounding the Lagôa Rodrigo de Freitas, an ingenious and bizarre creation of the sea—a completely enclosed salt water lake, originally without any visible connection with the ocean.

Out beyond the Jardim Botânico, by the sea, is Gavea, now a popular place of recreation. The squarish topped mountain, Gavea, for which the place is named, has never been provided with any means of ascent, but is a favorite attraction for those given to mountain climbing.

In this attempt to indicate roughly some of the more outstanding features responsible for Rio's charm, Santa Thereza Hill, one of the most delightful and accessible residential sections, must not be forgotten. Rising up practically out of the center of the city, it also has its unique way of approach. Electric cars leave the station, which



THE PRAÇA DO PARIS, RIO DE JANEIRO.

Adjoining the end of the Avenida Rio Branco is this spacious square laid out with formal gardens. Upper: The square, looking from the water's edge. Against a background of tall office buildings stands the Beira Mar Casino with its four spires, while in the center is the rounded dome of the Monroe Palace. Lower: The square at twilight, looking across the bay toward Sugar Loaf.

is on one of the central city squares, Largo da Carioca, ascend an adjoining low hill, Santo Antonio, and from there span the intervening space to Santa Thereza over an historical aqueduct transformed into a modern viaduct. The way winds on up among beautiful homes with their ample gardens, disclosing lovely views of the scene below, and then, through forest roads, to Silvestre. Thus Santa Thereza also provides access to Corcovado.

Besides the various sections of the city there are the so-called suburbs, a series of flourishing little towns which have sprung up along the railroad leading out of Rio. Many thousands of passengers commute daily between these towns and the city proper, and it is probably merely a question of time before they will expand and merge, forming a vast projection of the metropolis itself.

The first impression registered by a visitor arriving at Rio must perforce be that of newness, wideness and modernity. True, immediately upon landing he will traverse the oldest part of the city, but he will do so through the wide and modern Avenida Rio Branco, with its imposing buildings, lovely sidewalks and general air of the things of today. This avenue was cut through the city some years ago in order to provide not only a thoroughfare but also ample ventilation through the network of narrow streets comprising the old city; and as it leads out into other parts equally magnificent and modernized, the visitor is likely to keep this impression of newness for some time. Even the hill upon which the city was founded has been razed, also with a view to additional ventilation, and the place occupied by tall modern buildings.

In reality, however, Rio is an old city as age is counted in America, having been founded in 1567. It preserves indelibly the impress of the past, not only in the old nucleus itself but in all parts of the city, even in the outlying sections where many charming old homes and estates have been incorporated into the growing metropolis, to which today they lend a dignity and grace all their own. Two old imperial palaces figure among the most sumptuous and well-kept-up places: Guanabara Palace, sometimes used as a residence by the President of the Republic, and the Quinta da Boa Vista, which houses the National Museum. Here are many old churches and other buildings with a wealth of colonial art, and a thousand and one other reminders of long ago. Certainly in the march of modern progress, Rio has gone ahead with giant strides, yet always with the constructive purpose of necessary and desirable improvement leaving untouched as far as possible the precious landmarks of the past.

In the last analysis, the fascination of Rio, in so far as it can be explained, comes not only from the attraction of its various component parts in themselves, but also from their unique relation to



COPACABANA BEACH, RIO DE JANEIRO.

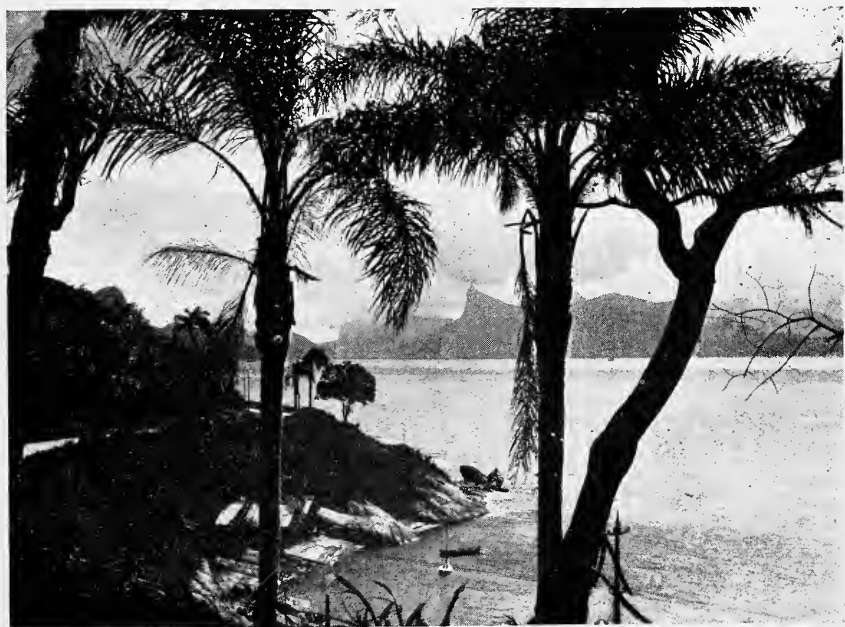
Popular with both visitors and residents is the splendid beach of Copacabana. Upper: A view from a height in the city. Lower: The terrace of one of the modern hotels which border the beach.

each other, bringing about exquisite and unexpected results in a never-ending variety of effect. And over all, the sky and what it can do to the scene plays an important part.

Some days are cloudless, the whole scene vivid and clear cut. The winter months of June, July and August have many such days, when the proverbial bluish haze in which Rio is usually steeped is to a great extent absent, and sky and sea and mountains and forest stand revealed in all the glory of their vivid blues and greens, and the city is a symphony of color. Then there are the somber days when all is merged into a vast study in grays.

More characteristic, however, of Rio, are those dream-like days when the brilliant sunshine is filtered through a tenuous haze which softens outlines, tinges the bay, and envelopes in blue and purple the alluring hills beyond.

At the close of a day like this, watch a ship sail out of the harbor while the sky turns to rose and gold as the sun goes down behind the hills, and the city lights blaze up, casting golden bars on the water.



RIO FROM ACROSS THE BAY.

The peak of Corcovado and other mountains form a rugged background for Rio de Janeiro when seen from Canto do Rio, one of the beaches adjoining Nictheroy.

THE JUNIOR RED CROSS AND INTERNATIONAL GOOD WILL

By CARY T. GRAYSON, Admiral, U. S. N.

*Chairman, Central Committee, American Red Cross and Chairman,
League of Red Cross Societies*

IMPROVEMENTS in transportation and in other means of communication have brought all parts of the world into closer physical relationship than seemed possible only a few years ago. While the barriers of time and of distance have been so nearly surmounted, men and nations are still widely separated by differences in language, in culture, and in understanding. It is not desirable even to attempt to reduce the distinguishing characteristics which give color, variety, and value to different civilizations. What we need most is unity with variety. This kind of unity is spiritual in its nature. It does not depend upon machinery or devices of any kind. It requires no official or governmental sanctions. It springs from the hearts and the minds of men. It thrives upon understanding, upon appreciation, and upon good will.

To the creation of this spiritual quality among the nations, more than 14 million members of the Junior Red Cross are devoting their energies with increasing enthusiasm. They do not regard themselves as missionaries or reformers. None of them wish to impose their national culture upon other nations nor do they wish to adopt for themselves a foreign culture without change. Their efforts are directed toward the development of understanding and of good will so that upon the basis of justice and fair dealing the peoples of all nations may dwell together in spiritual unity and in uninterrupted harmony.



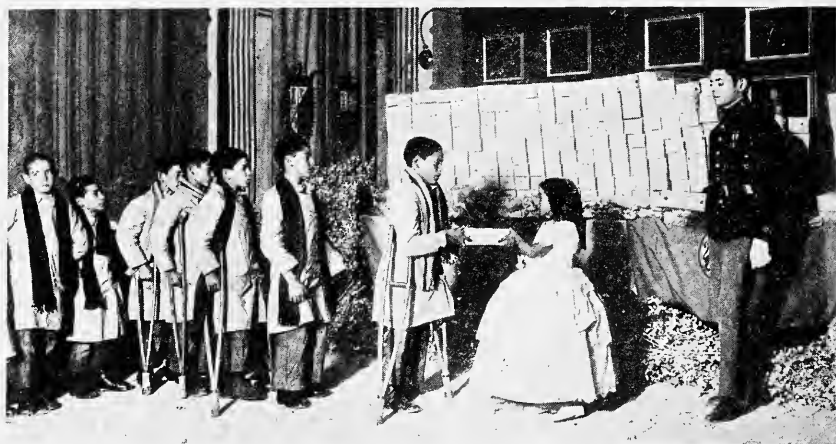
DISCOVERING LIKENESSES AND DIFFERENCES THROUGH THE JUNIOR RED CROSS

By RUTH EVELYN HENDERSON

Educational Adviser, American Junior Red Cross

CHILDREN of the Fort Pierce School, Florida, wrote in a tone of dignified courtesy to children of a school in Hungary: "The Junior Red Cross serves a great need in the world for making an understanding, which in turn forms friendships that should do much toward making peaceful relations in the world. We have had charming exchanges with Japan, Denmark, South Africa, and Hungary. We love the association, though it appears remote, with friends who are unlike in nationality and religion but are alike in being interested in schools and students of varied countries and make no differences in friendships because of national variations. We concur with your prayer for God's blessing on your bright little homeland. May any sorrows or hardships be lightened by remembering that a host of American boys and girls will be thinking kindest and loveliest things about your dauntless people. May our friendship continue pleasantly. If there is anything special you would like to know from our country or school, we should be happy to answer that request."

Not all the letters in this vast exchange, which is weaving intricately among all continents and some fifty countries, are couched with such careful formality. "We had to write a letter to some people in New Mexico, so I thought I would write to you," Nancy, of a rural school in Australia, said very directly to a girl named Sarah, in New Mexico. Nancy, however, like all these youthful correspondents, has an eager delight in discovering mutual interests. She is eleven, lives a mile from school, carries her lunch, has a pet lamb, does not own a bicycle (called "bike" by children in Australia as well as by those in the United States), and was curious about a sample of cactus sent her school from the New Mexican school. Several of the boys who wrote letters for the same album told their nicknames. Like United States boys they enjoy hunting; but in Australia they hunt not only rabbits, but kangaroos, which are "very good to eat", and possums, which are "not caught for eating, but their skins."



JUNIOR RED CROSS ACTIVITIES IN SPAIN.

At a festival, under the auspices of the Ambassadors of Chile and the United States, for children in the public institutions of Madrid, presents from Junior Red Cross members in the United States were distributed.

Fundamentally, the likenesses have their roots in humanitarian purposes expressed in the program of service that has developed among Junior Red Cross members throughout the world. Their sympathy expresses itself spontaneously whenever a disaster is dramatic enough to be reported in newspapers of other countries. When Long Beach, California, was wrecked by an earthquake, children of Spain hastened an anxious letter to their Junior Red Cross friends:

DEAR COMRADES:

The other day the director told us the sad news of the misfortune which has come to you and immediately a commission of children went to the telephone headquarters and communicated with the Central Committee of the Red Cross, in order that they might send our condolences to you. They told us that they were engaged that very moment in expressing the sympathy of the whole Junior Red Cross section. But it is only right that you should know that your special friends in Spain, those with whom you correspond in Cuéllar (Segovia), are thinking of you and sharing with you the sorrow through which you are passing. Tell us the details and if your families were among those killed. We shall be happy to hear soon and hope to have satisfactory news. We pray God to give you the resignation necessary to endure your affliction.

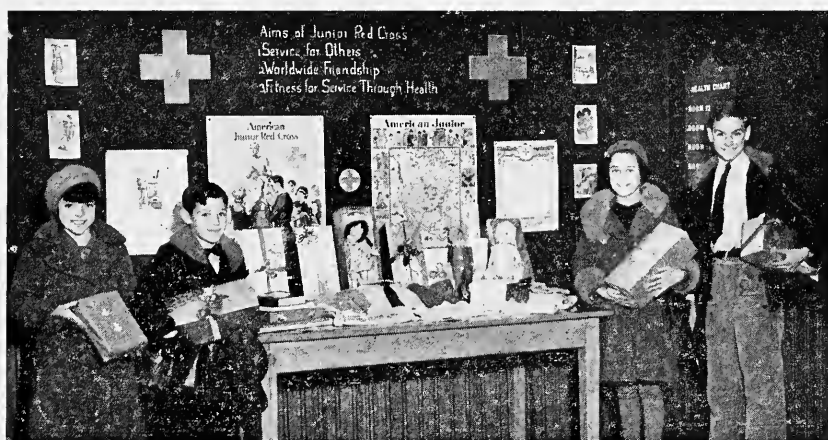
Always your friends; in the name of us all.

JUAN BARBOLLA, VICTORIANO QUEVEDO.

After the typhoon in Japan, a high school in Alabama wrote to the Osaka prefecture: "We are very sorry to hear of your terrible disaster and hope that none of our friends with whom we have been corresponding were injured."

Examination of the Junior Red Cross magazines published in other countries (there are approximately 30 of these) reveals striking

resemblances in the types of humanitarian work practiced by the young people, though national traditions and specific needs give original form to the program and prevent monotonous standardization. The international correspondence albums always contain one letter telling of Junior Red Cross service, and this, too, is an influence for international harmony of purpose. Members in Czechoslovakia wrote: "We send seeds of flowers from our own garden to needy schools so that the children may also have the pleasure of planting their own flowers." Helped by a small gift from the National Children's Fund of the American Junior Red Cross, they now have a thriving nursery of 2,000 fruit trees, and have installed in their school a washstand and a wardrobe with money earned themselves. From Hungary, the young citizens report: "We thank God that the Junior Red Cross has been organized in our village, too. We had a present from America; then we had a play and so had enough money to buy a cow. Seventeen children had scalded milk for breakfast. The cow proved to be an old one so we sold her and bought one much younger. But first we arranged another play so that we had money to buy her with. Now the breakfast of 15 children is safe for 6 years. Then we had some new shoes made and some old ones mended so the children should be able to come to school. Kind people helped with clothing and food, and some of the poor children had a warm dinner given them every day during winter. We did not suffer, for if our things wore out our parents bought new ones if they could. But in many families the father is out of work or earns only very little. We must be grateful to be provided for and should not look down on the



JUNIOR RED CROSS WORK.

Pupils of a public school in Salt Lake City exhibit gifts prepared for other Junior Red Cross members in foreign lands in pursuing the aims of the organization inscribed on the wall in the background: "Service for others; world-wide friendship; fitness for service through health."



INDIANS ON LAKE TITICACA.

An album prepared by the first Junior Red Cross group in Lima, Peru, for colleagues in the United States included photographs and descriptions of customs of the country and its native products.

needy, but rather help them." The United States school that receives such a letter can understand it, knowing that many schools in our own country have had similar problems and have met them with ingenuity and persistence.

Likenesses of national ideals and traditions are found. Escuela No. 20, C. E. 12, Buenos Aires, Argentina, wrote to a school in New Jersey: "In the geography and history classes our dear teachers have taught us to admire and love your great and beautiful country as well as your great men. They tell us that all the countries of America are brothers. We honor them by giving their names to our schools, squares, and streets. Thus the school to which we go is called Escuela República Oriental del Uruguay. One of the streets of our city is called by the name of your country, Estados Unidos, another is called New York, and others by the names of your great men, such as Franklin, Monroe, and Lincoln."

There are also universal human likenesses, as in the amusing division of labor between boys and girls revealed in a letter from San Jose, California, where the children had dressed a doll, "a little visitor ready for Poland. She will make her home in your village school. The girls dressed her in a typical California schoolgirl costume and made extra clothes. There are 20 boys in the class and they don't sew, so they criticized the costumes and gave very good suggestions. The boys are very much interested in Poland and have read stories of your country aloud as the girls sewed."

Then, the questions! Multiply the natural curiosity avid in a single child by fourteen million, the number of Junior Red Cross members in the world, and you will have an estimate of the information that, potentially, might be on its way to develop respect and friendly understanding among the young people of the earth.

"We play the fairies make the snowflakes", write some very young members. "It is fun to play Make-Believe. Do you play it?" "Would you mind telling us some of the things you study in school?" asks another group. And others: "Be so kind as to answer our message as soon as you are able. Send us also some of your views and descriptions." "Will you tell us about your town? We don't know much about cities. Our nearest one is in the next State." "We particularly noticed your birds and flowers." "One thing we want to know about is your writing. Most of us cannot do that well." "Another thing that was interesting was your stamps." "We hear that your school hours are quite long." "We are wondering if you have athletics." "We have different teachers for each subject and we wonder if you have the same teacher all the time."

A school in Vermont sends an album telling about the maple sugar industry of the state and "illustrates" the album with a box of delicious maple sugar. A school in Idaho tells from start to finish the history of an "Idaho baked potato", famous throughout all the States. An album from California is about fruit drying and accompanies a case of assorted dried fruits. From Illinois comes a fascinating exhibit of toy tractors of different kinds, mounted in a wooden box for safe carriage, and explained in the accompanying album of letters. A New England group dresses a "Puritan lady." Schools of the Canal Zone and of the Southwest tell of the Spanish antecedents of their sections. The West writes of mining, rodeos, cowboys, native Indian art, and pageants dramatizing pioneer days. The East writes of tercentennial celebrations. The correspondents in other countries answer questions and ask more of their own. Dolls in costume, pictures of old cathedrals, native designs, toys, all travel on their mission of enlightenment. "We hope that the interchange of these albums will not be the end of the correspondence between

our circles. There are many things that we would still like to know about your school life and your country. Probably you would like to know more about us."

For an organization that is barely 20 years old in the countries where it originated, Australia and Canada, the spread and maturity of the Junior Red Cross are remarkable. Most of the North American continent, much of Europe, and active sections of South America and all other continents are stirring with the benign purposes of "service for others," "worldwide friendship," and "health of mind and body to fit us for better service." Parents, educators, and statesmen have bidden the movement godspeed. Free from oblique motives, the youth of many nations are exploring paths of sane understanding, determined to build a world brotherhood founded on universal welfare. Their expression is not empty but earnest, living in daily tokens and deeds of good will.



JAPANESE DOLLS.

A pair of dolls dressed for the national dance called "Banzai", performed on happy occasions, was the gift of a Japanese school to one in the United States.

RED CROSS PROGRESS IN LATIN AMERICA

By Dr. RODOLFO ESPINOSA R.

Vice President of Nicaragua and President, Nicaraguan Red Cross

THE peoples of Latin America are sincerely devoted to humanitarian ideals, and they have welcomed the Red Cross as an institution in whose efforts to relieve suffering, to improve social conditions, and to train the rising generation in sentiments of friendliness and good will they can take part.

There are now 18 national Red Cross Societies in Central and South America and the Antilles and their achievements show steady progress and brilliant results. Definite progress can be noted, even over the short period which has elapsed since the Second Pan American Red Cross Conference held in Washington in 1926.

All these societies are now organized to relieve disaster sufferers and accident victims. Each one of them has its own dispensaries and trains women and girls in domestic hygiene and the care of the sick. All but two have established Junior Red Cross organizations, through which the Red Cross exercises its influence in the school on the boys and girls who will be the men and women of tomorrow.

Moreover, each one of the Latin American societies has, in some particular field or fields, attained a considerable degree of development. Thus, for example, the Argentine Red Cross has established seven first aid posts on the seashore, and Red Cross volunteers clean up the beach so as to prevent accidents due to cuts from broken glass, fragments of metal, etc. The society has a Samaritan¹ and a life-saving corps, arranges courses in swimming and life-saving, and provides for the transportation of sick and injured patients. In the health work of the Argentine Red Cross vaccination against diphtheria plays a prominent part. The Argentine society regularly gives layettes and cradles to poor mothers, and it has a school assistance committee which distributes clothing, shoes, etc.

In Bolivia, the Red Cross has opened a dispensary and also a hospital. During the fighting in the Chaco, soldiers' families, refugees from the front and prisoners of war were looked after by the Bolivian Red Cross. Besides caring for sick soldiers, this society has distributed medical stores, clothing, linen and blankets.

¹ The Samaritans are first-aid workers.—EDITOR.

The Brazilian Red Cross has built at Rio de Janeiro a splendid medical and surgical institute, including a hospital, a polyclinic and a nursing school. This society plays an active part in the campaign for the improvement of health and its program is of a very broad character.

The dispensaries of the Chilean Red Cross handled 252,800 cases in 1933. The organization has opened 49 school dental clinics, as well as centers for the distribution of clothing in schools, canteens, and three preventoria, one of which is the first of its kind to be located in the mountains at a high altitude. The Chilean Junior Red Cross maintains a center for the prevention and treatment of tuberculosis. Smallpox vaccination is given by the Red Cross, which was also extremely active in a recent typhus epidemic. Sick or widowed mothers have received 14,000 allocations (foodstuffs, layettes and clothing), and poor persons suffering from the depression have received 135,000 such allocations. Moreover, the Red Cross has infant welfare centers, milk stations and X-ray establishments, in addition to beach first-aid stations, pharmacies, barber shops and bath establishments. Arrangements are made by the Red Cross for the transportation of hospital and asylum patients and for visiting nursing service to families.

The Colombian Red Cross maintains a general dispensary which, in five years, has handled 52,000 cases and given 249,000 injections. Its public health nurses make an average of 6,000 visits a year, and the society has been active in promoting B.C.G. vaccination of infants against tuberculosis, in anti-venereal work, and in the campaign against malaria. Vaccination against smallpox and typhoid is also given by the Red Cross, which has a health center with a special child welfare department, a canteen for mothers, and five day nurseries. During the five years 1929-34, 1,262,000 feeding bottles were distributed through these day nurseries. Other institutions established by the Red Cross in Colombia include a night-shelter and a vocational guidance service for homeless children; two first aid posts with motor-ambulance service have been organized to deal with factory accidents. Flood sufferers have been assisted on the basis of individual inquiries carried out by the society's nurses. Rural hygiene also figures as an important item in the program.

Two thousand eight hundred consultations were given in 1934 in the Central Dispensary of the Costa Rican Red Cross, whose motor-ambulance undertook 743 journeys. This society sends a medical mission every year to the penitentiary on Saint Lucas Island; the mission dealt with 112 patients there in 1934. Other initiatives include the distribution of milk to children with tubercular tendencies, the founding of a tuberculosis dispensary at San José, and the estab-

lishment of a pavilion for children in a sanatorium. During a recent epidemic of typhoid fever, the Red Cross took a leading part in the campaign for health education that was undertaken as a precautionary measure. Moreover, a school for the blind has been opened by the Red Cross, which has also undertaken the disinfection of houses and tracts of land following floods, and distributed 5,000 doses of quinine.

In the 10 years from 1922 to 1932, the Red Cross in Cuba handled more than 73,000 patients in its dispensary at Habana. This dispensary includes medical and surgical services, dental and other specialized services, a pharmacy and a laboratory.

At Santo Domingo, the Red Cross has a fully equipped hospital to which is annexed a depot of medical supplies. The Ecuadorean Red Cross maintains a day nursery, a canteen for children between 2 and 4 years old, and a vacation colony. The Guatemalan Red Cross conducts health propaganda on an intensive scale, directed from the dispensary established by the society, which includes a laboratory and a pharmacy.

In the Republic of El Salvador the Red Cross has its own tuberculosis dispensary and has been active in anti-malarial work. Following a recent earthquake, it played an active part in the relief of the sufferers.

In Mexico, several cities now have their own Red Cross hospitals, and the principal Red Cross hospital at Mexico City includes an X-ray department, facilities for baths and sun-baths, and a nursing school. The Mexican Red Cross has been specially active in the campaign against malaria and acted as host to a malaria congress. The society also possesses a lying-in hospital, a mother's home, and a baby dispensary, supplemented by a home visiting service. First aid posts and motor-ambulances have been provided by the Mexican Red Cross to deal with emergency cases of sickness and accident.

In Nicaragua there is extensive Red Cross activity, especially in the fields of disease prevention, relief to sufferers from endemic diseases, and disaster victims.

The tuberculosis dispensary of the Panamanian Red Cross handles an average of 325 patients every month. This society is particularly active in the campaign against tuberculosis and raises funds for this purpose by issuing stamps and publishing a special calendar. Pre-natal consultations are given to two or three hundred expectant mothers every month, and in this connection home visits and milk distribution are also arranged. The Red Cross, besides distributing foodstuffs to the needy, also organizes school lunches and maintains clinics for babies and children of pre-school age.

In Paraguay the Red Cross has rendered outstanding service in its capacity as auxiliary to the Army Medical Service. Milk stations

and a milk distribution service for school children have also been arranged. The society is now busy with extensive plans for assistance to mothers and children and to incapacitated ex-service men.

The Peruvian Red Cross maintains a hospital of its own and has played an active part in malaria work through the distribution of 25,000 doses of quinine. The society is also associated in the campaign against dysentery and sleeping sickness, and provides vaccination against whooping cough. The four school canteens established by the Red Cross provided 12,000 meals every day. The organization also finances a children's colony, conducts first-aid posts on the seashore, and distributes underclothing and medicines to poor children. The society has also arranged health demonstrations, including medical social service for children.

The Uruguayan Red Cross has a dispensary supplemented by a home visiting service, a day nursey, a baby clinic, and four kindergartens, one of which is equipped with a dental clinic. In each district of Montevideo the society maintains three public health nurses who undertake case work inquiries.

The general dispensary of the Venezuelan Red Cross includes medical and surgical services, specialized services, a pharmacy, etc., and the society also conducts a surgical center and anti-malarial dispensary. It has been active in connection with smallpox vaccination, and among the institutions maintained by the society may be mentioned a day nursery with an X-ray department, a canteen for children and expectant mothers, and a rural medical social service for children. Other activities of the Red Cross in Venezuela include the distribution of clothing and medicine to poor children, health demonstrations, and "Samaritan" courses.

From this brief summary it is easy to realize that the Red Cross Societies of Latin American play their part in the world Red Cross movement with loyalty, perseverance and ingenuity. They stand for social progress in the New World, and the Third Pan American Red Cross Conference, which is to meet at Rio de Janeiro in September, will be able to feel pride in the progress made by these societies, which marks a definite step forward in the continuous evolution of the Red Cross movement throughout the world.

THE BRAZILIAN CONSTITUTION OF 1934

By RAUL D'EÇA

Editorial Staff, Pan American Union

ON July 16, 1934, the United States of Brazil, through a National Constituent Assembly gathered at Rio de Janeiro, adopted a new Federal constitution. This instrument of government was the result of eight months of careful consideration during which practically all shades of opinion and all points of view had the opportunity to be heard and discussed.

It seems fair to say that in its general principles the new constitution satisfies the demands of a majority of the Brazilian people. This constitution is essentially the product of the political reformation which began in Brazil in 1930; it represents an effort to readjust the national Government to the new economic, social and political conditions of present-day life.

As long ago as November 3, 1930, when Dr. Getulio Vargas assumed the Presidency of the Provisional Government of Brazil, he had declared that his program of national reconstruction included, among other things, the reform of the electoral system. Such a reform should first of all give the suffrage to literate citizens, men and women, to enable the Government then to consult the nation, through its representatives gathered in a Constituent Assembly with broad powers, "as to the revision of the Federal statute, in order to afford greater protection to public and individual rights and guarantee the autonomy of the States against violation by the central government".¹

A few days later a decree promulgated by President Vargas granted discretionary powers to the Provisional Government until the constitutional reorganization of the country should take place. This decree declared that the new Federal constitution must maintain the Republican and Federal form of government and could not restrict the rights of municipalities or of Brazilian citizens, as established in the Constitution of 1891.²

One of the first measures taken by the Provisional Government was the appointment of a committee to prepare a new electoral code for the nation. This committee, composed of three distinguished Brazilians, Joaquim Francisco de Assis Brazil, João Cabral and Mario Pinto Serva, submitted its report to President Vargas on September 8, 1931. Three months after its publication, the report went back

¹ *Diario Oficial*, Nov. 4, 1930, pp. 20366-20368.

² Decree No. 19398, *Diario Oficial*, November 12, 1930.

to the committee with a number of suggested changes and additions, which were embodied in a new draft code presented to the President by the committee. After careful consideration, President Vargas promulgated the new electoral code for the whole nation on February 24, 1932.³ The code went into effect on March 27, 1932. It applied to the election of delegates to the Constituent Assembly, after which it was modified in some respects by the respective provisions of the Constitution.

Among many other interesting provisions, the electoral code extended the suffrage to women, and created electoral tribunals to formulate uniform rules and regulations for elections throughout the whole country, pass on electoral controversies, and count the ballots and publish the results. Suffrage was granted to all men and women over 21, except to beggars, the illiterate, and men enlisted in the army and navy. Voting was direct and by secret ballot. Proportional representation was adopted in the elections.

The next thing the Provisional Government did was to appoint a committee of 31 members, including one woman, Dona Bertha Lutz, to prepare a draft constitution to be submitted to the National Constituent Assembly when the latter should convene.⁴ Among the members of this committee were such prominent men as Afranio de Mello Franco, Themistocles Cavalcanti, João Mangabeira, General Goes Monteiro, Antonio Carlos Ribeiro de Andrada, Carlos Maximiliano, Prudente de Moraes Filho, and Oliveira Vianna. The committee started work in November 1932, under the chairmanship of Dr. Afranio de Mello Franco, the Minister of Justice, Dr. F. Antunes Maciel, being honorary chairman. A sub-committee of 12 was appointed to receive suggestions from the other members and write a first draft to be discussed by the committee as a whole. The distinguished journalist Otto Prazeres was chosen secretary of the sub-committee.

At the same time President Vargas decreed that the election of delegates to the National Constituent Assembly should take place on May 3, 1933, which was later declared a national holiday so as to facilitate voting. In a subsequent executive decree the number of delegates to be elected was fixed at 254—214 to represent the States and the Territory of Acre, and 40 to represent the occupational associations (representing employers, employees and the liberal professions) of the country. Of the latter, 20 (including 2 delegates chosen by public employees) were to represent employees, and the other 20 (including 3 delegates chosen by the liberal professions) were to represent employers.⁵ Two days later the President issued instruc-

³ Decree No. 21076, *Diario Oficial*, Feb. 26, 1932.

⁴ Decree No. 21402, of May 14, 1932, *Diario Oficial*, May 17, 1932.

⁵ Decree No. 22653, of April 20, 1932, *Diario Oficial*, April 27, 1933.



THE CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES AND THE STATUE OF TIRADENTES.

In the Chamber of Deputies, which is popularly called "Tiradentes Palace" from the statue of the promartyr of the Republic in front of the building, the National Constituent Assembly drafted the new constitution which was signed and promulgated on July 15, 1934.

tions as to the manner of holding elections; these instructions had been prepared by the Superior Tribunal of Electoral Justice.⁶

The elections took place on the date set. Elaborate preparations had been made all over the country. More than 1,200,000 voters were registered. Women, in accordance with the new electoral code, were allowed to vote in a national election for the first time in the history of Brazil. In fact, 20 per cent of the total vote cast that day is said to have been by women voters, and one woman delegate, Dr. Carlota Pereira de Queiroz, was elected from São Paulo. More than 50 political parties were represented at the polls, a fact indicating the intense interest felt by the people of Brazil in the revision of the constitution.

After the ballots had been counted and the results published by the electoral tribunals, the National Constituent Assembly was called to order in the Tiradentes Palace, in Rio de Janeiro, on November 15, 1933. The Assembly, under the presidency of Dr.

⁶ Decree No. 22627, of April 7, 1933, *Diário Oficial*, April 19, 1933.

Antonio Carlos R. de Andrada—who had been elected to that office at one of the preliminary sessions—heard a report of President Vargas giving a detailed account of his three years of government; and after approving all the acts of the Provisional Government, the delegates set to work on the new constitution.

The preliminary draft prepared by the President's committee of 31 was submitted to the Assembly, which in turn appointed from among its members a committee to study the President's draft and to suggest any changes or additions it deemed necessary.

The final draft of the new constitution was approved by the Assembly, after ample debate, on July 15, 1934, and the following day it was signed and promulgated. Before dissolving, the Assembly elected the new Constitutional President of the Republic for the next four years, Dr. Getulio Vargas receiving a considerable majority of the votes. On July 20, Dr. Vargas was formally inaugurated in the Tiradentes Palace as the first President under the new constitution, taking the oath of allegiance to this instrument of Federal government.

The remainder of this paper will be devoted to presenting the main provisions of the new constitution.

As adopted by the National Constituent Assembly and printed in the official text, the new Federal Statute of Brazil is a document about 23,600 words long and very detailed in its provisions.⁷ It is subdivided into eight sections or *Titulos*, devoted to Organization of the Federal Government; Juridical Organization of the States, the Federal District and the Territories; Bill of Rights; General Economic and Social Order; The Family, Education and Culture; National Security; Public Employees; and General Provisions, including those of a temporary character.

The introduction consists of the following significant paragraph:

Placing our trust in God, we, the representatives of the Brazilian people, gathered in a National Constituent Assembly to organize a democratic government which shall assure unity, freedom, justice and social and economic welfare for the Nation, decree and promulgate the following constitution of the Republic of the United States of Brazil.

The first title of the constitution is devoted to Federal government. The republican and federal form of representative government as proclaimed on November 15, 1889, is maintained and popular sovereignty expressly recognized. In general, the framework of the Federal Government is the same as that provided for by the Constitution of 1891, except that powers are broader and more explicitly stated.⁸

⁷ Serviço de Publicidade da Imprensa Nacional, *Constituição da Republica dos Estados Unidos do Brasil*, Imprensa Nacional, Rio de Janeiro, 1934.

⁸ For a critical appreciation in English of the new Brazilian constitution, see P. A. Martin, "Brazil", in *Studies in Hispanic American Affairs*, of the George Washington University, A. C. Wilgus, editor, v. III (1934), pp. 272-276.

Thus, among other things, the Federal government is empowered to state the principal objectives of national education and to pass general legislation on labor, production and consumption, with power to establish any limitations deemed necessary for the public welfare. It may likewise legislate on conditions for the exercise of liberal and technical professions as well as of journalism.

The States may adopt whatever constitution and laws they desire, with certain limitations. They must, for instance, provide for municipal autonomy, grant professional representation and may not levy more than a 10 percent ad valorem export tax on products of their respective territories shipped abroad. In special cases the Federal Senate may authorize higher export duties for specified periods. The terms of State public officials must be limited to terms identical with those of Federal offices of similar character; and the reelection of governors and of mayors (*prefeitos*) to succeed themselves is specifically prohibited.

An interesting feature is the exclusive right granted to the States to levy and collect taxes on the consumption of fuels for internal combustion motors, although they may not tax such fuels produced within the national territory.

The matter of Federal intervention in the States is carefully defined and limited. The Federal Government may intervene in the States only to maintain national integrity; to repel foreign invasion or the invasion of one State by another; to stop civil war; to guarantee the free exercise of any public power of the State; to assure the observance of certain specified constitutional principles, and the observance of federal laws; to reorganize the finances of a State that has suspended for more than two consecutive years service on its funded debt, except in cases of *force majeure*; and to execute orders and decisions of federal judges and tribunals.

In some of these cases, intervention must be decreed by Congress, which shall stipulate its manner and duration; and the Chamber of Deputies may elect the interventor or authorize the President of the Republic to appoint him. In other cases intervention may take place only after the Supreme Court has declared unconstitutional the State law giving rise to the intervention; in such instances the intervention suspends only the particular law which has been declared unconstitutional. And in still other cases intervention must be specifically requested by the Supreme Court or by the Superior Tribunal of Electoral Justice.

Among acts specifically forbidden to the Federal, State, and municipal governments is the levying and collecting, under any name whatsoever, of any taxes or duties upon goods transported from one municipality or State to another. This does away with one of the greatest barriers with which domestic commerce in Brazil has had to cope in the past.

The legislative power is to be exercised by a Chamber of Deputies and a Senate. Both deputies and senators must be Brazilian-born citizens and are elected by universal and direct suffrage. The deputies are of two classes: those elected by the people and occupational representatives. All are elected for terms of four years. The number of deputies popularly elected will be proportional to the population of the several States, not exceeding one per 150,000 inhabitants to a maximum of 20, and above that, one per 250,000 inhabitants. The number of deputies representing occupational associations is equal to one-fifth of the number of those elected by popular vote. The former are to be elected by indirect suffrage by the professional, trade and labor organizations existing in the country, divided for that purpose into four categories: agriculture and stock-raising; industry; commerce and transportation; liberal professions, and public employees. At least six-sevenths of the occupational representatives must belong to the first three of these categories, said representatives to be divided equally between employers and employees and elected by their congeners. To the Superior Tribunal of Electoral Justice is entrusted the task of determining, an adequate length of time beforehand, the number of deputies to be elected. Only Brazilian citizens are allowed to participate in the election of occupational deputies.

An interesting departure from the old constitutional procedure is the power granted by the new constitution to the Chamber of Deputies to summon any Minister of State to appear personally before the Chamber or any of its committees, in order to give any information desired by the deputies on matters pertaining to his portfolio. The failure of a minister to comply with such summons may result in impeachment proceedings against him.

The Chamber, the Senate and the Chief Executive may all propose legislation, with certain limitations. For instance, bills relating to Federal intervention in a State and, in general, those on matters pertaining to one or more States, must originate in the Senate. The President has the power to veto any law either in whole or in part. This veto may be overridden by an absolute majority vote.

The Senate is composed of two representatives from each State and from the Federal District, elected for eight years, half of its membership to be renewed every four years. It is the exclusive duty of the Senate, among other things, to authorize any external loan of a State, a municipality, or the Federal District. The Senate has also certain supervisory duties, such as proposing to the President the annulment of any administrative act or order deemed illegal; and suspending in whole or in part the execution of any law, act, regulation, etc., which has been declared unconstitutional by the courts. The Senate is also empowered to collaborate with the technical councils provided

for by the constitution in formulating general plans for the solution of national problems.

During the intervals between legislative sessions, half of the Senate, with equal representation from each State and the Federal District, will function as a permanent section with the powers, among others, of taking measures concerning presidential vetoes, creating commissions of inquiry and convoking the Chamber of Deputies in special session.

Technical councils to advise each Ministry are among the organs of cooperation in governmental activities created by the new constitution. Half, at least, of the members of each council must be experts who do not belong to the regular personnel of the respective Ministry. The mode of appointment and the detailed functions of these councils are to be determined by law. In general, the councils act as consultative bodies for the Chamber of Deputies and Senate as well as for the respective Ministries to which they are attached; a Minister is forbidden to decide on any matter within his exclusive jurisdiction against the unanimous opinion of his council. General councils for advising the Chamber of Deputies or the Senate may be formed as the occasion demands by consolidating two or more technical councils.

The new constitution provides for the election of a President as Chief Executive of the Federal Government, but not for a Vice-President. The term of office of the President is four years and the same person may not be elected for two successive terms. The election is by universal, direct and secret ballot. If the office of the Chief Executive falls vacant within the last two years of the term, the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate in joint session shall elect a President for the remainder of the term. Only Brazilian-born citizens may be elected to the office of President. In case of the President's disability, his duties shall be discharged by the following in the order named: the president of the Chamber of Deputies, the president of the Senate, and the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.

The President shall be assisted by the Ministers of State, who must be Brazilian-born citizens. The Ministers are responsible for the acts which they sign jointly with the President. Deputies may be appointed Ministers without losing their seat in the Chamber, although during the period one holds a cabinet portfolio his alternate acts in the Chamber. Thus the framers of the new constitution apparently intended to create an opportunity for the introduction of a modified parliamentary system in Brazil. The Chamber, through its power of interpellation may, to a certain extent, determine who is to be Minister of State and what general policies the President must adopt. As a result, it may be that the President will appoint as Ministers deputies backed by the majority party in the Chamber. Whether this will be done remains to be seen.

The Federal judicial power is exercised by a Supreme Court and other courts of justice. The President, with the approval of the Senate, appoints the judges of the Supreme Court. Other judges of Federal courts are also to be appointed by the President from among lists of five persons submitted by the Supreme Court.

The new constitution provides for the creation of electoral tribunals whose duties include those of providing for the electoral subdivision of the country and for the registration of voters; determining dates of elections; deciding controversies arising from disputed elections; counting ballots; and announcing the results.

In the Bill of Rights are included the traditional rights enjoyed by citizens of modern States. Suffrage is granted to all Brazilians, both men and women, over 18 years of age, except to illiterates, beggars, enlisted men in the army and navy, and persons temporarily or permanently deprived of their political rights. Registration and voting are declared to be compulsory for all qualified men, and for all women holding salaried public office. Exceptions may, however, be established by law. All general rights and immunities enjoyed by individuals and their property are assured both to Brazilian citizens and to foreigners residing in the country. An interesting provision is the specific prohibition of direct taxation upon the professions of writing, journalism, or teaching.

One of the major titles of the new constitution deals with the economic and social order. The country is to be organized economically in conformity with the "principles of justice and the necessities of national life" in such a manner as to enable all people to lead a "dignified existence" (*existencia digna*). Within those limitations, economic freedom is assured to all. To the public powers is entrusted the task of periodically determining the standard of living in the various sections of the country in order, it is assumed, to readjust the national economic organization accordingly.

The Federal government, in the public interest, may declare any industry or economic activity to be a Government monopoly. This can be done, however, only after just compensation has been paid to those whose legitimate interests may suffer in consequence. The encouragement of thrift, the development of credit institutions and the gradual nationalization of banking are to be the subject of legislation. Likewise, all insurance companies must be nationalized and any foreign company of that character existing in the country at the time of the promulgation of the new constitution had to be organized as a Brazilian institution.

Usury is prohibited and shall be punished by law which, it is assumed, will also define what constitutes usury.

The exploitation of mines, mineral deposits, and water and water power, even when privately owned, must be specifically authorized

by the Federal government. This authorization shall, however, be granted only to Brazilian citizens or to Brazilian corporations. All mines, mineral deposits, and water power that may be deemed essential to the national economy or the military defense of the country shall be gradually nationalized by law.

The constitution expressly recognizes the right of Brazilian citizens to organize themselves into labor unions and trade or professional associations. Production in general shall be encouraged, and conditions of labor, both in cities and in the country, shall be determined by law with a view to protecting the worker and the economic interests of the whole country. Labor legislation shall require equal pay for equal work, permitting no discrimination because of age, sex, nationality or civil status of the worker; establish regional minimum wages; limit daily work to eight hours subject to increase under the provisions of legislation to be enacted; prohibit the employment of minors under 14 years of age in day work, under 16 in night work, and under 18 in unhealthful industries (women are also included in the last prohibition); establish a weekly day of rest, preferably on Sunday; assure to all workers annual vacations with pay; provide for the payment of compensation to workers discharged without just cause, medical assistance to employees, leave with pay for women workers before and after childbirth, and old age, invalidity, maternity and accident benefits, these benefits to come from a fund contributed equally by the Federal government, employers and employees; regulate the practice of all professions; and recognize all collective labor conventions (presumably those of the International Labor Organization).

Rural labor is to be regulated by special legislation. The Federal government, in cooperation with the States, shall establish agricultural settlements to which the unemployed and inhabitants of impoverished regions may move if they so desire.

Immigration is to be restricted so as to assure the "ethnic integration" and the "physical and civil capacity" of the immigrant. The number of immigrants of any nationality to be allowed to enter the country each year must not exceed 2 per cent of the total number of individuals of that nationality established in Brazil within the last 50 years. The concentration of immigrants in any part of the national territory is forbidden.

Labor courts and commissions of conciliation are to be created to settle questions between employers and employees, who shall elect their respective representatives. The chairman will be appointed by the Government.

All concessions of land above a certain acreage (24,700 acres), whether of Federal or State property, must be authorized by the Federal Senate. Newspapers and other periodicals, whether political

in character or not, may not be owned by foreigners or by corporations the names of whose stockholders are not made public.

Only native-born Brazilians and naturalized citizens who have served Brazil in a military capacity may exercise liberal professions within the country, excepting, of course, foreigners who were practicing such professions in Brazil at the time of the adoption of the new constitution and those who do so in conformity with international reciprocity. Only Brazilian-born citizens may obtain the recognition of degrees received from foreign educational institutions.

Any public utility corporation established in Brazil must have a majority of Brazilian citizens, resident in Brazil, on its board of directors, or delegate full management to Brazilian citizens.

Another important title of the new constitution is devoted to the family, education and culture. The family, as constituted by indissoluble wedlock, is declared to be under the special protection of the State. Separation and annulment of marriage are to be determined by civil law. Civil marriage is free; religious marriages are recognized when in accordance with the civil law and duly registered.

The advancement of public education and the development of science, art and general culture are entrusted jointly to the Federal, State, and municipal governments. Education is declared to be the right of all; both the family and the public authorities must provide educational opportunities for Brazilians and foreigners residing in the country, in order to "create efficient factors in the moral and economic life of the nation", and "develop the consciousness of human solidarity in the Brazilian mind."

Primary public education is to be free and compulsory. But religious teaching is to be optional and in accordance with the religious principles of the pupil as declared by the parents or guardians. It is to be included in the curricula of the primary, secondary, vocational, and normal schools.

An interesting feature of the new constitution is the express provision that the Federal and municipal governments shall apply never less than 10 percent, and the States and the Federal District never less than 20 per cent, of their respective revenues from general taxation to the maintenance and development of public education. There are also other provisions for the advancement of public education, such as the establishment of educational funds with certain percentages of the money derived from the sale of public lands, etc.

Questions of public security shall be studied and decided by the Superior Council of National Security composed of the President of the Republic, Ministers of State, and Chiefs of the General Staffs of the national Army and Navy.

It is interesting to note that the new Brazilian constitution includes a provision whereby war may be declared by Brazil only when a

controversy is not arbitrable or when arbitration fails; likewise, Brazil may not engage in a war of conquest either directly or indirectly, alone or in alliance with any other nation. The provision regarding arbitration was also found in the first republican Constitution of 1891.

The constitution contains a whole section devoted to regulations for the protection of public employees. It provides that Congress shall adopt a statute of public employees with detailed rules as to appointment, dismissal, retirement and promotion of public employees.

Among its general provisions, the constitution includes one authorizing Congress to grant to the Chief Executive the power to declare a state of siege in any section of the national territory in danger of foreign aggression or armed insurrection. This power may, however, be exercised by the President only under certain restrictions; for example, the state of siege may not be declared for more than 90 days (although this time may be extended for equal periods) and only certain specified exceptional measures, such as exile, suspension of the right of free assembly, etc., may be taken by the President under those circumstances. When Congress is not in session, the Chief Executive may declare a state of siege only with the consent of the permanent section of the Senate; in such cases, Congress shall meet in special session after 30 days for the purpose of hearing the President's reasons for declaring the state of siege, and approving or annulling the executive decree.

The new constitution may be amended, except as to certain provisions considered fundamental,—the political structure of the State, and the organization and duties of the executive, legislative and judicial branches of the Government, and the Bill of Rights—when the proposed amendment is approved by an absolute majority of the Chamber of Deputies and of the Senate in two consecutive years, or by a two-thirds vote in the first year. A law or governmental act may be declared unconstitutional by a court of justice only when an absolute majority of the total number of judges are agreed.

Many other interesting and important features are included in the new Brazilian constitution which unfortunately it is not possible to study in detail in the present paper for lack of space. We mention in conclusion, however, that the Federal capital is by a provision similar to that of the 1891 Constitution to be transferred to a central point in the country. For that purpose the President is to appoint a commission to study the various localities considered suitable for the building of the capital. The report of this commission is in due time to be submitted to the Chamber of Deputies, which shall then decide upon the site, taking immediate action for the transference of the capital. After that, the present Federal District, with its beautiful capital of Rio de Janeiro, will become a State in the Union.

FOREIGN TRADE OF BRAZIL IN 1934

By MATILDA PHILLIPS

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ACCORDING to reports published by the Office of Commercial Statistics of the Ministry of Finance of Brazil, the foreign trade of the Republic in 1934 reached a total of 5,981,688 contos of reis paper, as compared with 4,985,525 contos in 1933, an increase of 996,163 contos, or 20 percent. Total imports during the year amounted to 2,502,785 contos and exports to 3,478,903 contos. Compared with the previous year imports show an increase of 337,531 contos, or 15.6 percent, and exports of 658,632 contos, or 23.4 percent.

The year 1934 closed with a visible trade balance of 976,118 contos, or 49 percent more than in 1933.

IMPORTS

The United States supplied 23.6 percent of the total imports in 1934, the United Kingdom, 17.2 percent, and Germany, 14 percent, as compared with 21, 19.4, and 12.1 percent, respectively, in 1933.

Imports by countries of origin

Country	1933	1934	Percent change in 1934	Percent of total	
				1933	1934
	<i>Contos</i>	<i>Contos</i>			
United States.....	455,400	590,901	+29.8	21.0	23.6
United Kingdom.....	419,611	429,952	+2.5	19.4	17.2
Germany.....	262,887	350,763	+33.4	12.1	14.0
Argentina.....	278,281	311,422	+11.9	12.9	12.4
Belgium.....	114,008	146,155	+28.2	5.3	5.8
Netherlands.....	83,521	101,527	+21.5	3.9	4.1
France.....	107,677	91,149	-15.3	5.0	3.6
Italy.....	86,206	86,548	+0.4	4.0	3.5
Uruguay.....	8,311	17,246	+107.5	0.4	0.7
Japan.....	12,281	16,648	+35.6	0.6	0.7
Canada.....	5,073	11,587	+128.4	0.2	0.5
Other countries.....	331,998	348,887	+5.1	15.2	13.9
Total.....	2,165,254	2,502,785	+15.6	100.0	100.0

NOTE.—The average value of the conto in United States currency was: 1933, \$78.73; 1934, \$82.80.

Imports by principal commodities

Commodity	Quantity		Value	
	1933	1934	1933	1934
Live stock.....number.....	5, 942	6, 132	<i>Contos</i> 3, 779	<i>Contos</i> 3, 233
Raw materials used in the arts and industries:				
Patent fuel, coal and coke.....tons.....	1, 292, 020	1, 135, 219	90, 234	90, 218
Cement.....do.....	113, 870	125, 702	12, 668	15, 371
Aniline or fuchsine dyes.....do.....	671	631	37, 225	36, 723
Iron and steel.....do.....	59, 927	93, 970	35, 528	53, 176
Jute.....do.....	24, 415	21, 612	32, 922	31, 840
Wool.....do.....	1, 777	1, 478	34, 540	31, 776
Wood pulp.....do.....	66, 582	74, 191	31, 161	44, 444
Hides and skins.....do.....	420	383	15, 250	14, 728
Silk.....do.....	937	786	50, 253	44, 568
Miscellaneous.....do.....	130, 243	119, 811	192, 273	239, 810
Total.....			532, 054	602, 654
Manufactures:				
Cotton piece goods.....tons.....	794	487	24, 256	15, 268
Other manufactures of cotton.....do.....	397	324	10, 656	7, 605
Automobiles.....do.....	8, 772	15, 173	59, 566	108, 597
Other vehicles and accessories.....do.....	2, 530	9, 014	15, 692	30, 870
Rubber.....do.....	5, 363	3, 668	43, 302	32, 628
Copper and alloys.....do.....	1, 386	2, 009	12, 398	17, 808
Iron and steel.....do.....	181, 023	223, 687	168, 098	218, 845
Gasoline.....do.....	235, 872	264, 666	75, 345	86, 668
Kerosene.....do.....	81, 176	93, 369	41, 877	48, 270
Wool.....do.....	321	292	11, 414	12, 424
Linen.....do.....	1, 098	738	28, 234	20, 538
Earthenware, porcelain, glass and crystal ware.....tons.....	11, 912	11, 265	29, 541	32, 417
Machinery, apparatus, utensils, and tools.....do.....	32, 016	40, 690	286, 814	396, 596
Fuel oil.....do.....	442, 225	451, 960	51, 445	49, 760
Paper and manufactures.....do.....	43, 842	47, 339	53, 682	56, 658
Chemicals, drugs, and pharmaceutical products.....tons.....	54, 688	60, 078	116, 213	136, 323
Miscellaneous.....do.....	44, 664	53, 887	149, 278	154, 785
Total.....			1, 177, 811	1, 426, 060
Alimentary substances:				
Olive oil.....tons.....	4, 851	4, 900	19, 851	25, 349
Codfish.....do.....	26, 162	13, 793	43, 646	36, 714
Potatoes.....do.....	11, 325	3, 414	4, 730	1, 931
Beverages.....do.....	8, 625	7, 529	25, 682	25, 338
Wheat flour.....do.....	48, 605	98, 654	25, 589	50, 099
Fruits and nuts.....do.....	16, 597	17, 792	40, 498	40, 726
Salt, rock and white.....do.....	10, 438	10, 204	938	877
Wheat.....do.....	850, 056	809, 843	256, 219	256, 467
Fodder.....do.....	93	32	67	15
Miscellaneous.....do.....	14, 196	12, 231	34, 390	33, 322
Total.....			451, 610	470, 838
Grand total.....			2, 165, 254	2, 502, 785

EXPORTS

The United States took 39.3 percent of Brazil's total exports in 1934 as against 46.4 percent in 1933. Germany's participation increased to 13 percent from 8.1 percent, and the United Kingdom's to 12 percent from 7.5 percent.

Exports by countries of destination

Country	1933	1934	Percent change in 1934	Percent of total	
				1933	1934
	<i>Contos</i>	<i>Contos</i>			
United States.....	1,309,569	1,366,448	+4.3	46.4	39.3
Germany.....	228,920	453,798	+98.2	8.1	13.0
United Kingdom.....	212,894	418,682	+96.7	7.5	12.0
France.....	256,634	248,103	-3.3	9.1	7.1
Argentina.....	151,066	164,406	+8.8	5.4	4.7
Netherlands.....	130,690	145,800	+11.6	4.6	4.2
Belgium.....	81,430	117,881	+44.8	2.9	3.4
Italy.....	91,629	108,220	+18.1	3.2	3.1
Uruguay.....	89,218	104,824	+17.5	3.2	3.0
Japan.....	4,269	10,638	+149.2	0.2	0.3
Canada.....	5,179	6,759	+30.5	0.2	0.2
Other countries.....	258,773	333,344	+28.8	9.2	9.7
Total.....	2,820,271	3,478,903	+23.4	100.0	100.0

Exports by principal commodities

Commodity	Quantity		Value	
	1933	1934	1933	1934
Animals and animal products:			<i>Contos</i>	<i>Contos</i>
Lard..... tons	8,755	5,412	13,202	7,978
Preserved meats..... do	6,010	7,656	17,112	22,073
Frozen and chilled meats..... do	44,012	41,707	47,618	45,275
Hides..... do	43,045	50,607	67,525	92,717
Wool..... do	2,495	2,588	6,507	13,047
Skins..... do	5,032	4,007	44,975	41,803
Tallow..... do	17	8,593	17	9,621
Jerked beef..... do	167	508	266	775
Miscellaneous..... do	19,689	25,176	18,868	23,154
Total.....			216,090	256,443
Minerals and mineral products:				
Manganese..... tons	24,893	2,300	1,135	134
Precious stones.....			105	307
Miscellaneous..... tons	25,678	21,837	43,290	3,732
Total.....			44,530	4,173
Vegetables and vegetable products:				
Raw cotton..... tons	11,693	126,548	32,782	456,198
Rice..... do	23,391	33,285	18,133	25,561
Sugar..... do	25,470	23,897	12,552	14,284
Rubber..... do	9,453	11,150	21,687	33,642
Cacao..... do	98,687	117,200	106,357	149,833
Coffee..... 1,000 bags ¹	15,459	14,147	2,052,858	2,114,512
Carnauba wax..... tons	6,875	6,146	21,570	27,862
Bran of all kinds..... do	89,193	71,230	14,269	13,130
Manioc meal..... do	5,482	14,809	2,181	5,211
Oranges..... boxes	2,554,258	2,631,827	54,894	56,189
Other fruits and nuts..... tons	137,188	151,169	34,649	37,010
Oil-producing seeds..... do	74,581	142,872	48,030	66,716
Tobacco..... do	20,097	31,141	29,784	52,208
Yerba maté..... do	59,222	64,702	63,420	71,526
Timber..... do	101,967	136,188	22,710	27,926
Oilseed cake..... do	34,911	66,635	9,595	17,486
Miscellaneous..... do	13,791	87,080	14,180	48,993
Total.....			2,559,651	3,218,287
Grand total.....			2,820,271	3,478,903

¹ One bag=60 kilos or 132 pounds.

PAN AMERICAN DAY, 1935

PAN AMERICAN DAY, established by a resolution of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union and by the executive decrees of the Presidents of all the American Republics, was celebrated for the fifth time on April 14 of this year. Ever since that date, letters, newspaper clippings and photographs have been arriving at the Pan American Union with news of the unanimity and variety with which the day was commemorated in all the Republics of the continent. According to *El Telégrafo* of Guayaquil, Pan American Day has "the virtue of producing in all America an outburst of feeling which tends to bring our nations closer together in thought and spirit, give them a clearer consciousness of their destiny, and induce cooperation in attaining the greatness and preeminence to which the New World has a right." *La Prensa* of Buenos Aires said on this occasion: "Officials seek the friendship of their colleagues in other countries; students and professors are interested in intellectual approximation; schools send each other letters and albums; the press cooperates with its usual efficiency in the great task of becoming better acquainted. Even the general public takes an interest in continental problems, and the America of individuals is really beginning to be united."

In the United States the Governing Board of the Pan American Union marked the Day by the signing of the Roerich Pact to protect historic monuments and scientific and cultural institutions under a special flag, in time of war as well as in peace. At the invitation of President Roosevelt, this treaty was signed in the White House by the chiefs of mission of all the Latin American Republics and by the Hon. Henry A. Wallace, for the United States. It is also open to signature by the other nations of the world. In the evening, a concert of Latin American music was given in the Hall of the Americas of the Pan American Union, before a large and brilliant audience. The Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States, and chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, made a brief address which was broadcast throughout the continent. (This was published in the June issue of the BULLETIN.) Other concerts of Latin American music, it should be added here, were given in Caracas and Rio de Janeiro.

On the Mexican border, midway on the International Bridge joining Laredo, Texas, and Nuevo Laredo, Mexico, a tablet dedicated to friendship between the American peoples was unveiled with impressive ceremonies. The United States was represented by the Hon. Edward

L. Reed, Chief of the Mexican Section of the Department of State, and the Mexican Government by Dr. Gustavo Serrano. This tablet was placed on the initiative of the Pan American Round Table and its president, Mrs. Florence Terry Griswold.

In Philadelphia, the American Academy of Social and Political Science, in cooperation with the Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce, held two Pan American sessions addressed by Dr. Oswaldo Aranha, Ambassador of Brazil; Dr. Francisco Castillo Nájera, Ambassador of

PAN AMERICAN
MARKER ON THE
INTERNATIONAL
BRIDGE BETWEEN
LAREDO, TEX., AND
NUEVA LAREDO,
MEXICO.

This marker, erected mid-way on the bridge over the Rio Grande, was dedicated April 14, 1935, to the women of the Americas by the Regional Directors of the Pan American Round Tables of Texas.



Mexico; Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, Minister of Panama; the Hon. Sumner Welles, Assistant Secretary of State of the United States; and Dr. Stephen P. Duggan, director of the Institute of International Education.

The Ambassador of Brazil said in the course of his address:

. . . Pan Americanism must grow step by step with the greatness of the peoples of America and its significance will assume an ever-broadening aspect. Our continent, with countries that are still in an initial stage of development, has material resources without peer and a power of idealism, the offspring of Democracy and of the newly-attained realization of its greatness, which will give to Pan Americanism an ever increasing preponderance in continental and universal affairs. . . .



THE WASHINGTON STATUE IN CARACAS, VENEZUELA.

Diplomatic representatives of the American republics and members of the Venezuelan Committee of the Pan American Society placed wreaths at the statues of Simón Bolívar, José de San Martín, Henry Clay, and George Washington on April 14.



OFFICIAL PAN AMERICAN DAY CELEBRATION IN MEXICO CITY.

High government officials, members of the diplomatic corps and others rendered homage to the Americas at a ceremony in the gardens of Chapultepec Palace. The minister of Colombia in Mexico, Dr. Fabio Lozano y Lozano, is shown delivering his address.

In the greater economic and political solidarity of the peoples of America, in the closer juridical and cultural union of our countries, in an ever greater harmony of interests, in a Pan Americanism ever stronger, more solid and more active lies the assurance of our continental future, of our decisive influence in favor of peace, democracy and the happiness of the peoples of the earth.

The Ambassador of Mexico said in closing:

Pan Americanism will constantly move forward, without stumbling, only when each one of its component parts succeeds in shaping its definite national structure and solving, without interference, its domestic affairs. Thus strengthened and without abandoning any of its individual characteristics, each nation will make its contribution to the common task entrusted by destiny to the peoples of the New World.

A program of Pan Americanism, capable of modification in accordance with temporary circumstances arising from its natural development, but always based on mutual respect, on a truer and more sustained rapprochement, on real economic cooperation and on an interchange of spiritual values, will insure a future of harmonious progress and of international justice, and will be an example to the world and the glory of the American hemisphere.

The Minister of Panama said in part:

This, gentlemen, is my conception of the larger significance of Pan Americanism. A relationship resulting from nature, from history, and from mutual interest. A sentiment of solidarity based on the factors of common pride in a tradition of liberty and democracy; of common confidence in the economic forces inherent in our resources and our geographical position; of a common purpose to expand trade, to create wealth, to stimulate progress. A vast and strong system of continental relations, enhanced by common understanding and good will, ennobled by the mutual respect of the rights and sovereignty of each Republic, and above all protected by international justice, is the force with which the nations of America can work out their destinies and achieve the great task of securing peace, friendship and prosperity.

The Pan American Society of the United States, New York chapter, sponsored a large meeting at Columbia University which was addressed by Señor don Francisco Pardo Zela, Consul General of Peru in that city. The chapter in San Francisco held a luncheon attended by the Latin American consuls and addressed by Dr. Percy A. Martin of Stanford University, Allen C. Blaisdell, director of the "International House" for students of the University of California, José J. Zarza, consul of Cuba, and Monsignor Joseph M. Gleason, of Oakland, California.

The chapter in Caracas, under the chairmanship of Rudolf Dolge, laid wreaths at the statues of Bolívar, Henry Clay, José de San Martín and George Washington, and also gave a concert at which Mr. Dolge delivered an address.

The city of Miami has for several years made a particular point of its Pan American Day celebration. This year, *Colombian Caravan*, another of the pageants on Latin American subjects by Dr. Barbara Ring, which have proved very popular in the past, was most effectively presented outdoors before an enormous audience. Señor don Alberto



A PAGEANT-DRAMA IN MIAMI, FLA.

On Pan American Day the historical pageant-drama by Dr. Barbara Ring entitled "Colombian Caravan" was elaborately staged. The episode pictured is the celebration at Bogotá in honor of Bolivar and his officers following the battle of Boyacá in 1819.



PAN AMERICAN DAY COMMEMORATION IN FLORIDA.

The Inter-American Union of Miami observed Pan American Day at a dinner at which the guest speaker was Mr. John Barrett, former Director General of the Pan American Union.

SCHOLASTIC OBSERVANCE OF
PAN AMERICAN DAY IN
MEXICO.

The day was celebrated extensively and enthusiastically by schools throughout Mexico. Upper: Against a background of a map of the Americas, children of the Republic of Argentina School in Mexico City danced and posed in tableaux. Lower: This group appeared in a special Pan American Day dramatization presented by students of the Emilio Carranza School in the State of Coahuila.



González Fernández, secretary of the Colombian Legation in Washington, and other Latin American officials were especially invited to attend. A dinner was given by the Inter-American Union of Miami and addressed by the Hon. John Barrett, former Director General of the Pan American Union.

Rotary Clubs in the United States as in other countries joined in the continental observance, as did chambers of commerce, women's clubs, and other organizations.

Innumerable universities and schools throughout the United States commemorated the day. Dr. James Brown Scott, Secretary of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, in his address at George Washington University referred especially to the ideals of Bolívar and struck the note of peace through international law. He said:

The oneness of America, is it not evidenced on this Pan American Day of 1935, by common cultural ideals, by the Pan American Union with its Governing Board in the Palace of the Americas in Washington, and by a constantly expanding public law of the Americas for the peaceful settlement of such disputes as may conceivably arise between and among the Republics of the inter-American community?

Many classes in elementary schools performed one or another of the dramatizations, such as *Viva Pan América*, the text of which was among the material distributed by the Pan American Union, while other classes in elementary or high schools wrote their own plays and connected the observance of the day with their studies in geography and other subjects, visits to museums, and special research in libraries. Interesting scenery was painted for the background of plays, flags of the American Republics were made for banners, and pictures of the industries and products of the Americas drawn or painted.

Similar work was done in other countries. The Pan American Union received from schools in Rio de Janeiro an excellent collection of albums for distribution in the United States. One album contained pictures of the chief products of Brazil with tiny samples of coffee, cotton, or some other commodity and drawings using the plant as a decorative motive. Other albums contained pictures of the school children and of their beautiful city and special studies which they had made of the other Republics.

In some instances the schools awakened entire communities to the significance of the day. The Instituto Social of the Universidad Nacional del Litoral, Rosario, Argentina, was especially active in this respect; it had preliminary information published in the local press, distributed material to the elementary schools in the city and arranged for special meetings in many others, and sponsored radio broadcasts.

Unfortunately, limitation of space prevents even the barest mention of the many interesting ceremonies which took place from one end of the Americas to the other. It should be noted, however, that



PAN AMERICAN DAY IN THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC.

Upper: At the Antera Mota School in Puerto Plata colorful exercises marked the program of the day. Lower: Students of the Padre Billini School in the capital observed Pan American Day with an unusual program of music and pageantry.

the consciousness of the war then still raging in the Chaco bore heavily on the hearts of many speakers. In Ecuador, Dr. Franklin Tello, Minister of Education, suggested that the day should be made an occasion for collecting money to be given to war orphans and that students throughout the Republics parade to express their ardent hope that the war in the Chaco desolating two sister Republics should come to an early end—a hope now happily fulfilled.

A general celebration of Pan American Day throughout a State or country is becoming more and more usual. The Minister of Education in Colombia, the Secretary of Public Education and Fine Arts in the Dominican Republic, the Minister of Public Education of Ecuador, the Directors General of Education in the States of Coahuila and Nuevo León and the Federal District of Mexico, and the Governor of the Federal District in Venezuela were among the officials



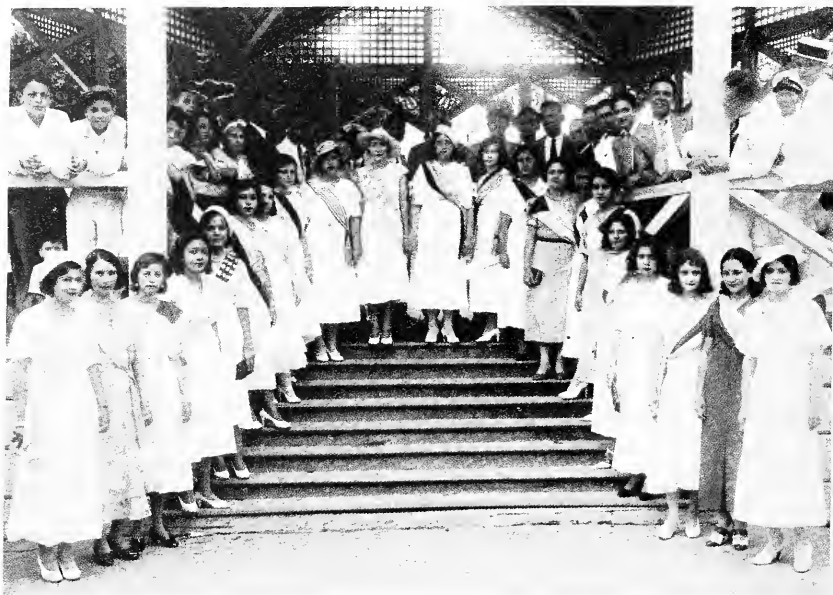
A SCHOOL PLAY IN NEW JERSEY.

A dramatization "Viva Pan America", by the seventh grade pupils was the feature of the Pan American Day exercises at the Roosevelt School at Fair Lawn, N. J.

calling upon all the schools under their jurisdiction to join in the commemoration of the day.

Official celebrations were numerous. Dr. Fabio Lozano y Lozano, Minister of Colombia in Mexico, addressed a large audience assembled under the ancient cypresses of Chapultepec, at the invitation of the Secretary of Foreign Affairs. In Habana the Director of the Inter-American Office of Trade Marks gave a tea in honor of the Secretary of State and the members of the diplomatic corps in the Cuban capital. The Latin American consuls gave a reception and dance in New Orleans in honor of the occasion and many other events of like nature took place in other capitals.

In Lima a program arranged by Señor Jorge Vargas Escalante, under whose auspices a goodwill campaign has been regularly broadcast through Station OAX4A, arranged an impressive international



PAN AMERICAN DAY IN ECUADOR.

Upper: In the city of Esmeraldas the day was commemorated by the opening of a new road named the "Avenida de las Américas." As a part of the ceremony 21 royal palms, one for each of the American nations, were planted by this group of young women. Lower: School festival at Quito. An ambitious program prepared by the various schools was staged in the city's leading theater. In this tableau Bolivar and Washington stand below the protecting figure of the Angel of Peace.

broadcast in which addresses were made by Dr. Oscar Miró Quesada, honorary president of the Radio Club of Lima, Dr. Carlos Concha, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Peru, Dr. Antonio Mora y Araújo, Ambassador of Argentina, Dr. Luis Subercaseaux, Ambassador of Chile, and Señor Guillermo Lazarte, director of Station OAX4A. On the opposite side of South America the Brazilian Historical and Geographical Institute held a special session to which prominent guests were invited. Under the chairmanship of the Count of Affonso Celso, Dr. Manuel Cicero Peregrino da Silva made an eloquent address in the course of which he said:

May nothing happen to cloud the horizon or disturb the serenity of the American atmosphere. May we ever be able to celebrate Pan American Day in complete continental harmony, to the festive sound of the national anthems of all the American Republics, their banners unfurled in cordial greetings. May the Pan American ideal never cease to inspire the peoples and the governments of this hemisphere and guide them to justice and to peace. May America keep faithful to its great ideal, trust in the power of cooperation and solidarity, and continue unafraid on its bright path toward the future.

Thus spoke the voices of America in official utterances, over the radio, in universities, in schools, in small groups and in audiences of many thousands. The theme was one, although simply stated in one place and elaborated in another, and played now in one language, now in another, with infinite variations, all blending together in a harmony of thought and ideals.



PAGEANT AT A HIGH SCHOOL OF READING, PA.

RESIGNATION OF HELOISE BRAINERD

ON June 22, 1935, the staff of the Pan American Union gathered to bid farewell to Miss Heloise Brainerd, who for more than a quarter of a century had been one of its members. Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General, addressed her in the following words:

"We have assembled this morning to express to Miss Brainerd our deep appreciation of the loyal and devoted service which she has given to the Pan American Union during the long period of her service. Her withdrawal from the Union does not mean a severance of her ties with us, for I am certain that her deep interest in our work will continue and that we shall be able to turn to her for advice and suggestion, especially in connection with the activities of the Division of Intellectual Cooperation which she has brought to such a high level of efficiency. It is no exaggeration to say that the work of that Division has not only aroused the interest but also strengthened the ties of the Republics of America with the Union.

"It is now my privilege to present to Miss Brainerd a resolution unanimously adopted by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union at its last meeting. It reads as follows:

WHEREAS, Miss Heloise Brainerd has for a period of twenty-five years given devoted service to the Pan American Union, first as secretary to the Assistant Director and subsequently as Chief of the Division of Intellectual Cooperation and

WHEREAS, Miss Brainerd has indicated her desire to be relieved of her duties on July 1, 1935,

BE IT RESOLVED by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union to express to Miss Brainerd the deep regret of the Board at her withdrawal from the Pan American Union and to combine therewith an expression of deep appreciation of her efficient and loyal service.

"Miss Brainerd, in presenting to you this expression of high regard of the Governing Board I wish to add thereto a word of godspeed from the entire staff of the Pan American Union, and to express the hope that you will be able to secure a well-deserved rest. When you return to Washington we shall continue to look to you for advice and guidance in the special field of work to which you have contributed so much. Let me assure you that we shall all look forward to welcoming you after your European tour."

In response Miss Brainerd expressed her sincere thanks for the resolution of the Governing Board and for the Director General's words of appreciation; she also voiced regret at leaving an institution of such lofty ideals and stressed her friendship for all her colleagues.

PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

BANKING LAW OF PERU AMENDED

The banking law of Peru, in force since May 23, 1931, has been duly ratified in a slightly amended form by the National Congress through the approval of law no. 8050, promulgated by President Benavides on March 23, 1935. Fundamentally, the new law follows the recommendations submitted in April 1931 by a committee of experts, headed by Professor Edwin Kemmerer of Princeton University, after a survey of the banking situation in the Republic. Previously, the banks had been governed only by several articles of the Peruvian Commercial Code.¹

The law, as amended, provides that commercial banks may establish branch offices in any city or town outside of Lima, increasing their capital by only 100,000 gold soles per branch, where before an increase of not less than 300,000 soles had been necessary. New banks established in Lima or having a branch office there are still required to have a permanently invested capital of 2,000,000 gold soles, while those organized elsewhere, and not having a branch in the capital, may start operating with a capital of 300,000 soles. *El Comercio* of Lima expresses the belief that this modification of the law will prove highly beneficial to commerce in the Provinces, for the banks are now in a position to extend their activities to every part of the country without too great an outlay of capital, thus contributing to the rehabilitation of national economy "by encouraging thrift and distributing credit facilities among the largest possible number of merchants and industrialists". The editorial warns, however, against the possibility of an "unbridled policy of expansion on the part of commercial banks" as a result of reduced financial requirements for the establishment of branch offices, "which might create, in the end, a most embarrassing situation".

Another change of importance in the law concerns the provision requiring both commercial and savings banks, "to maintain as cash reserve (*encaje legal*) to meet their obligations with the public": (a) not less than 15 percent of the amount of their deposits and sight obligations; and (b) at least 6 percent of their long-term obligations, while the previous requirements in this connection were 20 and 8

¹ For amendments to the banking law, and comments thereon, see the *Boletín del Banco de la Reserva del Perú*, Lima, April 1935.

percent, respectively. Furthermore, savings banks and savings departments of commercial banks are authorized to establish branches with an additional investment of only 100,000 soles, instead of the 300,000 required formerly.

Other reforms deal with the wider scope allowed banks in accepting collateral security; the longer periods for disposing of such real and personal property as may be awarded to them in foreclosure proceedings; and the regulation of certain phases of the liquidation of banking institutions by the Superintendent of Banks.—F. J. H.

RURAL SETTLEMENT PLAN IN HONDURAS

Under the provisions of a decree¹ signed by President Tiburcio Carías on March 8, 1935, the Government of Honduras has undertaken a comprehensive rural colonization plan having as its purpose the "intensive cultivation of the soil for the utilization of its products; the improvement of the agricultural and cattle industries of the Republic; and the protection of the farmer." Although the plan is intended primarily to benefit Hondurans, foreigners also may apply. Requests should be made directly to the Ministry of Agriculture or, in the case of a foreign resident, to the nearest Honduran Consul; the documents required include a health certificate and a sworn statement to the effect that the applicant does not belong to any political organization communistic or anarchistic in character.

The tracts to be distributed, taken from lands set aside for settlement under existing or future legislation, are to be of 50 acres each, and in choosing the location of the colonies preference will be given to land near rivers, lakes, seas, highways or railroads. The head of a family is entitled to one lot, but may be awarded two if the nature of his crops or the size of his family so require. The Government will provide both national and foreign settlers with farm implements, seeds, cattle, and equipment, as the national budget permits; in addition, the colonies may import free of duty machinery, implements seeds, and anything else they may need for their work.

Each colony shall have a chief or director to supervise its work and to keep complete record of all colonists, their families, lands allotted, materials and implements furnished by the Government, work accomplished and improvements made. Foreign settlers who, before acquiring ownership of the lot or lots awarded to them, may be negligent in the cultivation of the land; indulge in subversive political activity against the existing system of government; or submit with their applications documents which prove to be false, will forfeit all rights to the land given them and will be deported.—F. J. H.

¹ No. 125, *La Gaceta* (official daily of Honduras), May 10, 1935.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN THE TERRITORY OF MAGALLANES CHILE

The present Government of Chile has been active in promoting the interests of the Territory of Magallanes, the southernmost part of the Republic, according to a report submitted by Franklin B. Atwood, United States consul in Santiago.

Commercial activities were stimulated as a result of making the capital, Magallanes, a free port. The closing of some foreign markets for frozen meat from the Territory was offset by the authorization granted to the Commissariat of Foodstuffs and Prices to import it for sale at low prices in central and southern Chile, where it has been well received. Telegraph charges have been reduced more than half, and a bill is under consideration by Congress for the construction of radio stations in Santiago and Magallanes to improve communication between the two.

Early in January of this year the Government made available 1,000,000 pesos to the Magallanes Hospital, and three months later submitted a bill to Congress appropriating 3,000,000 pesos for the construction of additional hospitals which are badly needed in the Territory. Medical services have been provided by the Compulsory Insurance Bank of Chile in Magallanes, Porvenir, and Puerto Natales, the three principal cities; those insured in this institution have at their disposal a competent medical staff and modern facilities for the care of patients. Sanitary measures taken during 1934 not only covered the port movement, but included the vaccination of 2,388 individuals.

Over 700,000 pesos have been spent by the Government in improving the highways of the region; the sum of 1,161,000 pesos has been set aside this year for additional public works in the Territory, all but 300,000 pesos of which will be spent on the construction of new roads.

There are 15 primary schools maintained by the Government in the Territory of Magallanes, a manual training school, and two secondary schools, one for boys and the other for girls. The Government also helps to support the public night school in the city of Magallanes. Thirty thousand pesos have been appropriated for repairing school buildings in the Territory.

INTERNATIONAL SAMPLE FAIR IN RIO DE JANEIRO

The Eighth International Sample Fair will be held in Rio de Janeiro from October 12 to November 15, inclusive. Since it is the only one in Brazil, special concessions are granted to exhibitors: reduced freight charges for samples shipped on Brazilian vessels;

exemption from customs duties if reexport is guaranteed within a stated time; and preference—provided conditions and prices are the same—by the Government in awarding public bids. Those wishing to exhibit should submit their application to the fair headquarters not later than 30 days before the date fixed for its opening. Space rates may be had from the Pan American Union.

BRIEF NOTES

THE COLOMBIAN NATIONAL ECONOMIC COUNCIL

The National Economic Council of Colombia,¹ created by law in 1931, began functioning last May under the chairmanship of President Alfonso López. The council was established to help solve problems related to production and consumption, the tariff, commercial treaties, and in general everything concerning national economy. The members of the council are the Ministers of Finance, Industry, Public Works, Foreign Affairs, and Agriculture and Commerce; the managers of the Bank of the Republic, the Agricultural Mortgage Bank, the Agricultural Credit Bank, and the National Federation of Coffee Growers; the presidents of the Society of Agriculturists, the Chamber of Commerce of Bogotá, the National Federation of Industrialists and Producers; and the chief of the National Bureau of Statistics.

THE MATTE BROTHERS' SCHOOL IN SANTIAGO, CHILE

Don Claudio Matte, Director General of Primary Education in Chile, was the donor of a large, modern primary school recently dedicated in Santiago. The building, three stories high, is of reinforced concrete with stucco exterior, constructed according to the most modern style of architecture; including the grounds, it occupies an entire block. Outstanding features are the exceptional lighting arrangements, bathing facilities, and other innovations in school structure and equipment selected by Chilean architects after visits to the United States and Europe. The Matte Brothers' School, as the new institution is called, was placed under the direction of the Santiago Society of Primary Education, of which Señor Matte was for many years president; it had opened on March 11 with an enrolment of 1,100 boys. Provision has also been made for night school classes. Señor Matte, besides bearing the entire cost of the school, has made a generous donation for its support.

¹ The organization and functions of the national economic councils of Ecuador, Mexico, Peru, and Chile were discussed in the April 1935 issue of the BULLETIN.

THE NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF PANAMA

A national university is to be opened in Panama on September 30, 1935, according to a decree issued by President Harmodio Arias on May 29, 1935, establishing the bases of this new institution. The university will offer courses in philosophy and letters, political science and economics, law, business administration, and pharmacy, leading to the degree of *licenciado* (bachelor) as well as a course in education for primary school teachers and preparatory courses in medicine and civil engineering.

CHANGES IN THE CUBAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Among the changes recently made in the secondary education system of Cuba is the establishment of 24 high schools (*escuelas de segunda enseñanza*) to take the place of the six provincial institutes, the only official institutions of that nature heretofore functioning in the Republic. The distribution of the high schools by Provinces will be as follows: Pinar del Río 2, Habana 6, Matanzas 3, Santa Clara 5, Camagüey 3, and Oriente 5.

CULTURAL EXTENSION IN ARGENTINA

An official commission, under the chairmanship of the President of the National University of La Plata, was recently created in the Province of Buenos Aires to draft and carry out plans for cultural extension there. The program will include lectures, art exhibits, concerts, and motion pictures, to be given in cities and towns throughout the Province, as well as radio broadcasts and the establishment of public libraries.

PANAMA TO SPEND \$700,000 ON PUBLIC WORKS

A total of \$700,000 will be invested by the Government of Panama on public works projects already under way or soon to be initiated in Panama City and Colón, according to the construction program approved by President Arias last May. Schools, hospitals and parks are the most important items in the program.

RADIO AND MOTION PICTURES IN THE BAHIA PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The State of Bahia, in northeastern Brazil, is to use radio broadcasts and motion pictures as part of the educational program of its public schools, according to a decree recently issued by State authorities. The service will be in charge of the Director General of Public Education, who has been authorized to purchase the necessary equipment.

PANAMA HONORS CUBAN PATRIOTS

Indicative of the close and friendly relations that have always existed between Panama and Cuba was the observance of the thirty-fourth anniversary of Cuban independence at Panama City last

May 20. The principal event of the celebration was the unveiling of busts of José Martí and Antonio Maceo, outstanding heroes of independence in Cuba. The busts, a present from the Municipality of Habana to Panama City, have been placed at Plaza Cervantes, in the Exposition Grounds, facing Cuba Avenue.

THE VALPARAÍSO FINE ARTS SCHOOL

Through the efforts of a group of local artists and progressive institutions, supported by the Mayor of Viña del Mar and the University of Chile, a school of fine arts was established at Valparaíso, Chile, last April. Over 200 students are reported to have enrolled in the institution of which Don Agostino Bastiancig has been appointed director.

THE DOMINICAN GOVERNMENT HONORS WILLIAM E. PULLIAM

The Government of the Dominican Republic has bestowed upon William E. Pulliam, General Receiver of Dominican Customs, a deserved compliment for his untiring efforts on behalf of the erection of a monumental lighthouse at Santo Domingo to honor the memory of Christopher Columbus. At the request of President Trujillo, who already had conferred upon Mr. Pulliam the Order of Merit Juan Pablo Duarte in recognition of his generous services during the past twenty years on behalf of the lighthouse project, the Dominican Congress adopted a resolution June 25, 1935, which states: "Be it resolved: To send to the Honorable President and Benefactor of the Country a vote of applause for his just decision because it establishes for all time the honor due Mr. William E. Pulliam as the initiator of the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse to be erected on the southern coast of the island of Santo Domingo."

SCHOOL ON BARRAZA FILL, PANAMA CITY

The Barraza Fill at Panama City is a public works enterprise which in the past 20 years has reclaimed an area more than 4,000 feet long back of a sea wall (see BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for May 1930). A school to accommodate about 2,500 students has been constructed almost in the center of the fill, and was to be dedicated in May. The Centro Amador Guerrero, as the school has been named, is about 540 feet long and 52 feet wide.

MEXICAN PHILATELIC BUREAU

According to information published by the American Chamber of Commerce in Mexico, a special bureau for the accommodation of stamp collectors and dealers was opened early this year at the general post office in Mexico City, under the direction of Señor José Verástegui. The bureau is manned by a staff of expert philatelists.

NECROLOGY

ANTONIO MIRÓ QUESADA.—South American journalism lost one of its most conspicuous leaders when Dr. Antonio Miró Quesada, owner and editor of *El Comercio*, the oldest newspaper in Peru, fell before an assassin's bullets in the streets of Lima, on May 15, 1935. His wife, Doña María Laos de Miró Quesada, who accompanied him, was also a victim.

Besides having won a distinguished reputation in journalism, Dr. Miró Quesada was highly regarded in Peru as a legislator, diplomat and educator. Born in Callao in 1875, he was sent to England after he had completed his elementary education. Upon his return, young Miró Quesada entered the University of San Marcos, in Lima, where he received the degree of Bachelor of Laws in 1899. During his university days he had worked regularly on the staff of *El Comercio*, and in 1900, at the age of twenty five, he was promoted to the post of editor-in-chief. Entering the political arena, he represented Callao in the Chamber of Deputies for two terms, and afterwards in the Senate; in both legislative bodies he held the post of president. He also found time to serve as Assistant Professor of International Law at his alma mater, where in 1919 he was made Professor of Administrative Law.

Dr. Miró Quesada was very fond of travel, and took every opportunity allowed by his journalistic and political duties to become personally acquainted with those nations which maintained close ties of friendship with his native land. In 1906 he represented Peru at the Pan American Conference held that year in Rio de Janeiro, and subsequently visited the United States, Europe and several South American countries. Only two years ago he was appointed Peruvian Minister to Belgium, a post which he held for nine months, but his love for newspaper work drew him back to Lima and an untimely death.

JUAN BAUTISTA VICINI BURGOS.—On May 25, 1935, Juan Bautista Vicini Burgos, ex-President of the Dominican Republic, died at Santo Domingo at the age of 64. President from 1922 to 1924, he was held in great esteem by his fellow citizens for his public and private virtues. He was born in 1871, and educated at private schools in Santo Domingo and at the Normal School there when the famous Hostos was its director. His interest in commerce and finance led him to enter his father's business early in life. Upon the latter's death he became manager and partner of the firm and devoted his life to financial pursuits until called to the presidency.

LEOLINDA FIGUEIREDO DALTRO.—A beloved teacher and pioneer Brazilian feminist, Leolinda Figueiredo Daltro, died on May 4, 1935. Of Indian blood, she had devoted herself from her youth to promoting the welfare of the indigenous races. She was also greatly interested in friendless girls, and it was largely due to her efforts that the Orsina da Fonseca School—an institution in which they might be trained to earn their living—was founded. She was a proponent of feminism because she believed that with fewer restrictions women could work more effectively on behalf of mankind. Her life may be summed up in the words of Benjamin Costalat, in the *Jornal do Brasil* shortly after her death: "To the destructive acts of others she replied by constructive work."

FERNANDO FADER.—On February 28, 1935, the noted Argentine artist Fernando Fader died at the age of 52 in Deán Funes, a town in the Province of Córdoba to which he had gone for the sake of his health. Señor Fader had won acclaim while still comparatively young, but upon receiving a large inheritance he decided to give up art and undertake a gigantic engineering project, the changing of the course of the Mendoza River in order to provide motive power. The scheme proved visionary, and after losing everything Señor Fader again took up his brushes and proved that the tragic experience had enlarged his artistic powers. At the time of his death he was professor of landscape painting in the National Academy of Fine Arts, being permitted to hold his classes in the mountains of Córdoba. Readers of the BULLETIN will remember with pleasure his "Horses", reproduced in the March 1935 issue.



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BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



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SEPTEMBER

1935

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UNION OF AMERICAN REPUBLICS



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OF THE

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

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From "Charles Darwin's Diary of the Voyage of H. M. S. 'Beagle' ", edited by Nora Barlow. Copyright. Reproduced by permission of the Cambridge University Press and The Macmillan Company.

CHARLES DARWIN.

The hundredth anniversary of the memorable visit of Charles Darwin to the Galapagos Islands occurs in September 1935. This portrait, sketched by an unknown artist, pictures him four years after the return of the "Beagle" to England.



Vol. LXIX

SEPTEMBER 1935

No. 9

DARWIN AND THE GALAPAGOS ISLANDS

By EDWARD A. CHAPIN, Ph. D.

Curator of Insects, United States National Museum,

and

CLARA CUTLER CHAPIN, M. A.

ON a cloudless day in September of 1835 an eager, ruddy-faced young man clambered over the jagged black lava cliffs of a tropical island and felt that life was good. He was a thin young man, six feet tall and with a trace of a stoop even at 26, but his muscles had been hardened by four years of tropical and antarectic exposure, and he could outclimb some of his more powerful looking shipmates. He was a thinking young man, with sensitive features. Thick bushy eyebrows overhung his clear bluish-gray eyes, and the softest of brown hair grew above his high forehead. Four years aboard ship had given him a wavy brown beard, but the mouth above it was finely chiselled, and the blue-gray eyes had lost not a bit of their longing to learn.

Besides his fly-net, his pistol and his compass, the young explorer carried a small pocket notebook and a pencil. Very little escaped that industrious pencil. He noted the lava, black in the mass but reddish where it was most porous; it stretched out ahead of him in deep-cut waves that looked as if some inky ocean had been suddenly turned to stone in the very midst of a tempest. He noted the scrubby little bushes that grew on the lower slopes of the island. From a distance they had looked leafless and wintry, but as he bent over them he saw that there were tiny leaves and even some dull little blossoms to add to his collection. He climbed higher and noted the thick green vegetation, beginning about a thousand feet above sea level, and growing more thickly on the damp windward side of the island. He noted the wealth of birds, the paucity of insects, the many turtles,

the huge lumbering land tortoises a yard across the shell, and the ugly clumsy lizards, two or three feet long and as black as the lava of the beach where they were crawling. Alone except for the sailor servant whom he had taught to shoot his specimens and prepare his bird skins, he pushed inland, returning to the beach only after hours of painstaking observation had sped by like minutes. So much to see! So much to note and collect!

Riding at anchor off the island was the deep-waisted little barque that had sent the two ashore and would have a ship's boat waiting for them at the appointed time. A 242-ton barque does not look big from the cliffs of a rocky island. This one, however, was big enough to occupy a very large place in history, for she was the historic ship *Beagle*, four years out of England on a voyage of scientific exploration. On this day in September 1835, she was making her long-to-be-remembered call at the Galapagos Islands before turning toward the Pacific Ocean and the home voyage.

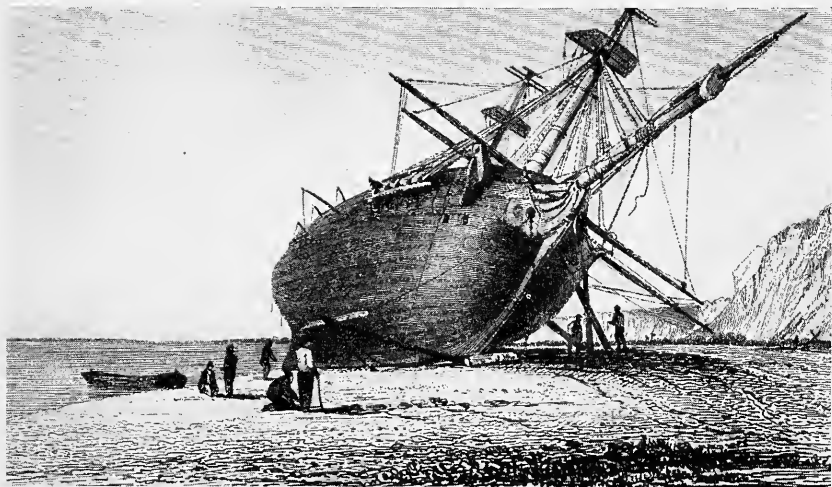
The earnest young collector was the ship's naturalist, Charles Darwin. This was not the Charles Darwin whose calm, benign old features were familiar to our grandparents as they read of pilgrimages to the Kentish home of the world's greatest scientist. This was an untried youth, fresh from Cambridge University—tireless in his labors, yet scarcely daring to hope that the results of his observing and collecting and study might in some way be found worthy of the notice of real scientists.

Even at the time, this visit to the Galapagos Islands seemed important to Darwin. Two months earlier he had written from Peru to one of his best friends of Cambridge days: "I look forward to the Galapagos with more interest than any other part of the voyage."¹ And in after years, years of continued study and experimentation and meditation in his quiet English home, the month which the *Beagle* had spent in this strange equatorial group of islands began to look more and more momentous, both to Darwin himself and to the world of science. Viewed in the light of its results, the achievements which grew out of it long afterward, that month may not unfairly be regarded as the high light of the whole five years of the *Beagle's* memorable voyage, perhaps even of the long and fruitful life of Charles Darwin himself.

For out of the astonishing assortment of birds and reptiles and plants which he found on those islands grew the young student's first grave doubts of some of the basic principles of natural history as then accepted. And out of those early doubts grew the 20 years of study which blossomed forth in the crowning achievement of Darwin's career—his theory as to the development of life forms. Before he

¹ Darwin, Francis, "Life and Letters of Charles Darwin." 1888. vol. 1, p. 234.

had been back in England a year, he set down in his small personal diary: "Had been greatly struck from about the month of previous March on character of South American fossils, and species on Galapagos archipelago. These facts (especially latter) origin of all my views."² Seven years later he wrote to his intimate friend and co-worker Hooker, the great botanist: "I have been now ever since my return engaged in a very presumptuous work. . . . I was so struck with the distribution of the Galapagos organisms, etc. etc. . . . that I determined to collect blindly every sort of fact which could bear any way on what are species."³ And 15 years after this, in 1859, came "The Origin of Species".



THE "BEAGLE" ASHORE.

This engraving from "Voyages of the Adventure and Beagle" pictures the latter as she was careened in the Santa Cruz River, Argentina, for minor repairs. Continuing the voyage, the 242-ton vessel reached the Galapagos Islands 17 months later.

Comparing his copious notes, the young explorer found that such animals and plants as exist at all on this Pacific group of islands are not exactly the same as the animals and plants on the continent of South America, and yet are astonishingly similar. He also found that the animals and plants on any one of the principal islands in the group are different from the animals and plants on neighboring islands, set off by 50 miles or so of deep ocean waters—and yet they are almost like them, far closer than to animals and plants anywhere else in the world, even those of South America. Here were the facts, neatly arranged in as complete a little biological demonstration as ever graced a laboratory—a natural history exhibit whose like has been

² *l. c.*, p. 247.

³ *l. c.*, p. 384.

found nowhere else in the world. They were waiting, as they had long waited, for a trained eye and mind to come and make use of them.

By 1835 the eye and mind of the young Charles Darwin had become sufficiently keen to seize upon them. Darwin came of a studious family, he had been educated at a famous old university, and he had had the advantage, in his undergraduate days, of intimate walks and talks with some able men of science. But more, perhaps, than by these early influences, his abilities had been sharpened by his four years aboard the *Beagle*, and his determination that not one hour of that precious opportunity should be wasted.

The invitation to sail with the *Beagle* as the ship's naturalist had come to an amiable boy of 22, freshly graduated at Cambridge, and still pursuing a leisurely course of studies intended to fit him, eventually, for a place in the Church of England. This sociable young man, much as he loved partridge-shooting and gay little undergraduate supper-parties, loved even better to walk into the countryside collecting rare and interesting species of insects and plants. Collections of this kind had been his private hobby from his first days at boarding school. In fact, he had learned so much from them that at Cambridge older and wiser men were glad of his company. It was a pleasure to scholarly botanists and geologists to have this wide-awake student join their walks and take part in their discussions on the workings of the world of nature. Chief among these "faculty friends" had been Prof. John Stephens Henslow, to whom Darwin was always deeply attached. It was Prof. Henslow who in 1831, shortly after Darwin's graduation, was invited to name a naturalist to go on the *Beagle's* long voyage of scientific investigations. Prof. Henslow immediately named his young friend of the walks and talks. No words can describe the boy's delight when he finally won his father's permission to go on this voyage. "What a glorious day it will be to me! My second life will then commence, and it shall be as a birthday for the rest of my life."⁴ It was too good to be true! His pet self-indulgence would now become his first duty!

The *Beagle* sailed in December 1831 with its 22-year-old naturalist in high spirits. A narrow space at the end of the chart table in the poop cabin was assigned to him for working and dressing, and for sleeping, also; his hammock was one of two to be slung above the table. A few small drawers in a corner held his clothes, but the top drawer had to be taken out to make room for the hammock whenever it was hung: space was precious aboard the little *Beagle*. Another small cabinet was assigned to his specimens.

The object of the voyage was "to complete the survey of Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego, commenced under Captain King in 1826 to

⁴ *l. c.*, p. 187.



TWO ISLANDS OF THE GALAPAGOS GROUP.

Engravings in Captain FitzRoy's "*Voyages of the Adventure and Beagle, 1831-36*", thus depict two of the larger islands in the archipelago. Upper: Isabela or Albemarle Island. This, the largest, has an area of approximately 1,650 square miles. Lower: Santa Maria or Charles Island. Here the voyagers on the "*Beagle*" found a settlement of Ecuadoreans, established 6 years previously.

1830—to survey the shores of Chile, Peru, and of some islands in the Pacific—and to carry a chain of chronometric measurements around the world.”⁵ While the ship’s officers and men were busy with these long and exacting tasks, Darwin had time for his own independent shore expeditions to study the geology, botany and zoology of this new field. Sometimes a few of his shipmates would arrange to go with him, sometimes he would be alone with native guides or would travel with acquaintances he had made among the gentlemen of the region. The first half of 1832 was spent on the ocean crossing and on shore trips around Bahia, Rio de Janeiro, Buenos Aires and Montevideo. The next three years were devoted to a thorough study of the coasts of Patagonia, Tierra del Fuego and Chile, ending with a couple

⁵ Darwin, Charles, "*Journal of Researches*." 1905. p. 11.

months in Peru. There were many long trips in small boats or on horseback, and almost innumerable excursions to the deserts, villages, forests, mines and mountains of that far southern end of the great South American continent.

The enthusiastic youth who embarked on the voyage had been frankly bewildered by the wealth of material before him. He did not know whether he was noting the right facts. He wondered what sort of information would be likely to be useful to the scientists who, he



A SHORE LINE OF LAVA ROCK.

The coast lines of the islands are usually of red and black lava rock, in wave-like boulders or rugged cliffs. There is little or no vegetation in the lower altitudes.

hoped, might find his labors of some service. The answer was to note everything, and this he proceeded to do. His zeal was not daunted by intense heat, bitter cold, or the severe seasickness that pursued him around the world. After four years of unflagging industry he could still write to his sister: "A man who dares to waste an hour of time has not discovered the value of life."⁶

No wonder there were results. Out of those years came many specimens and great piles of careful notes, and out of those years there came also an able scientist, who had but lately been an amateur.

⁶ Darwin, Francis, *op. cit.* vol. 1, p. 237.

Young Darwin had acquired the purpose in life that he had so obviously lacked in Cambridge days: "It appears to me the doing what little we can to increase the general stock of knowledge is as respectable an object in life as one can in any likelihood pursue."⁷ By September 1835 he had also acquired the sound judgment and scientific self-confidence that enabled him to see and read the story set forth in the significant groupings of birds, beasts and plants which awaited him in the Galapagos Islands

The first landing was on the island of San Cristóbal (Chatham), the island nearest the mainland and the one that is now used as the seat of island government by the Republic of Ecuador. With Covington, his sailor attendant, Darwin made inland climbs on this 24-mile island from several of its many bays. They cut through its intricate thickets or made their precarious way over fields of lava craters, whose truncated hillocks, rising 50 to 100 feet above the plain, smelled like smothered stoves and looked to the exiled Englishman like the chimneys of the iron furnaces of Staffordshire. One night they slept on the beach instead of returning to the *Beagle*, and so were able to use every bit of daylight next day.

After a week at San Cristóbal the *Beagle* proceeded to the island of Santa María (Charles). Here the voyagers found not only nature but man. A small six-year-old settlement from Ecuador was established several miles inland, at a height of about 1,000 feet. They also found mud, black mud, and how they did rejoice at the sight after the parched soil of Peru and northern Chile. On San Cristóbal they had been astonished at the fearlessness of the birds: "The birds are Strangers to Man & think him as innocent as their countrymen the huge Tortoises."⁸ On Santa María the birds were just as tame, in spite of the fact that a colony of men had been living on the island for six years. Not far from the settlement of thatched pole houses Darwin saw a boy sitting by a spring and using a little switch to kill for his dinner the birds that came down to drink.

After a brief visit at Isabela (Albemarle), the largest island in the group, the *Beagle* stopped at San Salvador (James Island). Here Darwin and four others were put ashore to camp on the island for a week. They pitched tents in a little valley not far from the beach and explored the island from there. At two or three thousand feet above sea level, the earth was damp and vegetation bright and green. There was even a spring with cold water.

Here, as on San Cristóbal and Santa María, there were great numbers of the big tortoises, slow and placid, and so heavy that several sailors tugging together could scarcely lift one. The tortoises had

⁷ *I. c.*, p. 218.

⁸ Darwin, Charles, "The Beagle Diary". Nora Barlow, edit. 1933. p. 334.

made well-beaten paths to the upland spring. Many were returning, happily full of the cool water, and many others were clumping slowly up, their necks stretched out toward the feast ahead. They were making perhaps 360 yards an hour (Darwin timed one with his watch); and when they reached the spring they buried their heads above the eyes in the muddy water and sucked in great mouthfuls, about 10 gulps to the minute. Darwin and Covington made a two-day visit to this green upland region of San Salvador, and during those two days they lived on the meat of the tortoises, fried in rich oil from the fat with which the creatures are so abundantly supplied.

Down on the beach they found the sand so hot that it almost burnt through their thick shoes; Darwin could not measure the heat be-



Courtesy of Charles Haskins Townsend.

TORTOISES ON ISABELA ISLAND.

The giant land tortoises that abounded on the islands at the time of Darwin's visit are now practically extinct, because of the inroads made upon them by whalers of early days in search of food, and by oil hunters of a later period.

cause his thermometer would register only up to 137° . But in the open air the thermometer stood at 85° —strangely cool for low land only forty miles from the equator.

Collecting, climbing, and a trip to a salt lake in the bed of an old crater made the week on San Salvador pass all too quickly. On October 17 the *Beagle* called for the five campers, and then, after three days devoted to surveys among the smaller islands, she set her

course sturdily toward the long Pacific crossing. In one year more Darwin was again in England.

For three years after his return, the traveler worked over his voluminous notes and put them together in the form of a narrative. In 1839 was first published Darwin's own story of what he saw on the *Beagle's* famous voyage around the world. Under its various titles—*Journal of Researches*, *Voyage of the Beagle*, *A Naturalist's Voyage*—that story has become a classic.

But Darwin had brought home material for more than a story. The years that followed the publication of his journal were filled to the brim with scientific studies, experimentation and writing; his appetite for investigation had only been made the more keen by that early voyage. And through all those years of study the ideas that he had brought home from the Galapagos Islands were growing bigger. He built them up by experiment, he tried them out on his own constantly increasing knowledge of the world of nature, and above all he thought about them, year after year.

Those islands were in the Pacific. They were volcanic islands. But their flora and fauna were not like the flora and fauna of other Pacific islands or of other volcanic islands. They were so consistently close to the flora and fauna of South America that botanically speaking, zoologically speaking, the islands were part of America. Again, what grew on one of those island was always just a bit different from what grew on the others. The tortoises, for instance: there was nothing like those tortoises anywhere else in the world—and yet the tortoises were different on the different islands, so different that the far from learned settlers on Santa María could tell by looking at one which island the creature had come from. So with the birds and the flowers—different from each other, and yet vastly more different from the birds and flowers of all other parts of the world.

Darwin resolved to search the world of knowledge for information that might throw light on this problem. He collected every sort of fact that could bear on his subject, mountains of facts. He read pages and pages of agricultural and horticultural books. He pondered the theories of an older Cambridge graduate named Malthus, on the struggle for existence among men. Was there a parallel to that in the world of nature? That neat little assortment of living things on the Galapagos Islands was too complete to mean nothing. There must be some explanation.

In 1859, in *The Origin of Species*, he offered his explanation. He built it around three facts which had been known so long that everybody, learned and ignorant alike, took them for granted. Heredity, variation, and multiplication, he said, are the three keys to this riddle. We all know that offspring resemble their parents, animals

and plants no less than humans. We all know that there is variation; different children of the same parents are sure to show some small differences among themselves. We all know that more offspring are produced than survive. Unlimited multiplication means that there must be competition for the things that make life possible. Some will survive and some will not.

Among these many variations some will be better adapted than others to the conditions in which the animal or plant has to live. The individuals who show these better-adapted variations will be more likely to survive than the others, and in this way the favorable variations will tend to be preserved.

Over a long period of time the accumulated effect of these variations must be very great indeed, said Darwin; see how much has been accomplished artificially, even in the very short time during which farmers have been practising methodical selection among the breeds of domestic animals and plants. The differences upon which nursery-men and breeders of animals base their choice are often so slight that an outsider can hardly see any at all, yet the sum total of those differences carried through several generations produces changes that are obvious to everyone. How great, then, must be the total effect of the slow accumulation of the many, many slight variations which have been naturally preserved because they are well adapted to the environment! Geology shows us what inconceivably long periods of time there have been for these variations to pile up in.

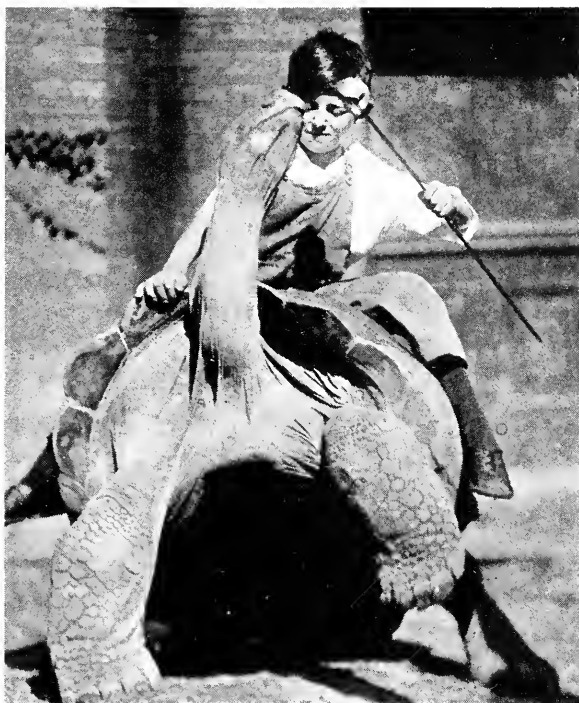
The most complicated adaptations may result from the summation of a long series of simple favorable variations. Varieties become sub-species, sub-species in time become true species, and so on. "Natural selection" was the name Darwin gave to this slow and steady process, although he once told a friend he almost wished he had called it "natural preservation" instead, to throw more emphasis upon the method by which the selection is actually accomplished.

An epoch-making book had grown out of that early voyage. And lest there be any doubt about the connection between the two, Darwin began his very first paragraph: "When on board H. M. S. *Beagle*, as naturalist, I was struck with certain facts in the distribution of the organic beings inhabiting South America, and in the geological relations of the present to the past inhabitants of that continent. . . . On my return home it occurred to me . . . that something might perhaps be made out on this question by patiently accumulating and reflecting on all sorts of facts which could possibly have any bearing on it."⁹ Something had at last been made out, and it was something big.

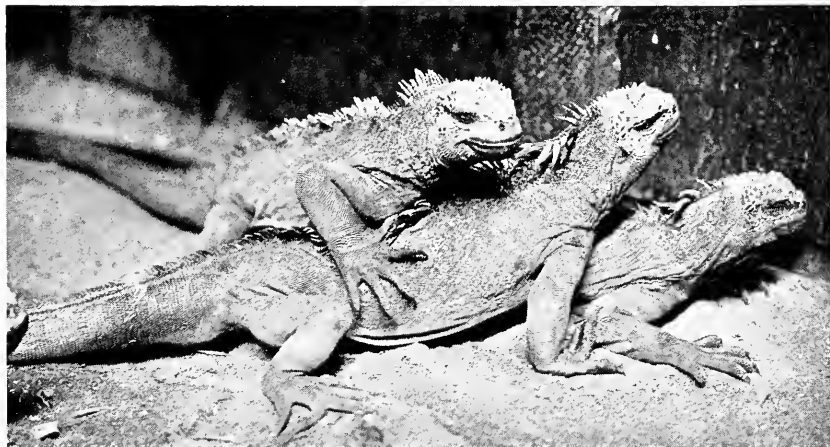
⁹ Darwin, Charles, "The Origin of Species." Hurst & Co., n. d., p. 1.

A GALAPAGOS LAND
TORTOISE (TESTUDO
VICINA).

This specimen in the New York Zoological Park was brought from Isabela (Albemarle) Island 30 years ago, since when it has increased in weight from 140 to 305 pounds. Its shell measures 3 feet 10½ inches over the curve.



Courtesy of the New York Zoological Society.



Courtesy of the New York Zoological Society.

SEA IGUANAS FROM THE GALAPAGOS ISLANDS.

Interesting reptiles are the sea iguanas of the Islands, a species unknown elsewhere in the world. Never wandering from the coast line, they feed entirely on sea lettuce, an alga found on the rocks at low tide. Exceeding the land iguanas in size, some males have been found to reach a length of 5 feet and weigh as high as 22 pounds.

If Darwin were alive and well on this hundredth anniversary of his memorable month on the Galapagos Islands, he would lose no time in paying a second visit. This second call would be a call of felicitation. He would hasten to express to the authorities who govern those islands, and particularly to Señor Egas, whose farseeing leadership has accomplished so much, the delight with which the whole world of science has greeted the measures which have been taken to guard these unrivalled treasures. The Government of Ecuador has now thrown its protection around the wild life of the Galapagos Islands by making it unlawful to kill, capture, injure, or even disturb any of the rare tortoises, lizards, seals and birds, or their nests or eggs, on any of these islands. The forbidden species are: the fur seal (*Arctocephalus galapagoensis*), the sea lion (*Otaria byronia*), the marine iguana (*Amblyrhynchus cristatus*), the terrestrial iguanas (*Conolophus subcristatus* and *Conolophus pallidus*), and the terrestrial tortoises (*Testudo abingdoni*, *Testudo darwini*, *Testudo wallacei*, *Testudo ephippium*, *Testudo porteri*, *Testudo chathamensis*, *Testudo hoodensis*, *Testudo elephantopus*, *Testudo phantastica*, *Testudo gunteri*, *Testudo vicina*, *Testudo microphrys*, *Testudo becki*). Furthermore, the Government of Ecuador has set apart as reserves or national parks, to serve as an inviolable refuge for all animal life, either resident or migratory, the following islands in the group: Española, San Salvador, Pinzón, Santa Fe, Rábida, Seymour, Daphne, Tower, Marchena, Pinta, Wenman and Culpepper, and a part of Isabela. In order that these measures may be duly carried out the same decree further forbids "yachts, steamers or . . . boats or airplanes of any description . . . to land any person on any of the islands of the Galapagos without having obtained legal permission in Puerto Baquerizo Moreno on the island of San Cristóbal." This is a step which is destined to mean much, not only to the animal life of the Galapagos Islands, but to the science of zoology throughout the world.

A COMMISSION OF THE SOCIAL-ECONOMIC UNION OF CUBA VISITS WASHINGTON.

LAST February, as the result of a meeting in Habana attended by representatives of Cuban labor, capital, agriculture, industry, and organizations representing various economic activities in the Republic, the Social-Economic Union of Cuba was formed. Entirely unofficial and nonpolitical in character, the Union was planned as a permanent body to cooperate with the United States in carrying out the provisions of the Reciprocal Trade Agreement signed August 24, 1934, and the Costigan-Jones Act, which provided for the allocation of quotas among the several areas supplying the United States sugar market.

On August 12, 1934, a distinguished commission of 18 members from the Union arrived in Washington to discuss informally both with officials and with representatives of American trade and labor organizations matters of mutual interest and to express their appreciation of the policy of economic cooperation pursued by the Government of the United States in its relations with Cuba. The commission was greeted on its arrival by the Hon. Sumner Welles, Assistant Secretary of State, and other officials of the State Department.

At noon the commission was received by the President at the White House. At this time the chairman of the commission, Señor José Manuel Casanova, president of the Social-Economic Union, gave to President Roosevelt a testimonial, signed by 320,000 Cubans, expressing their approval of the measures adopted by both countries to expand trade between them. The document and signatures were contained in three handsome boxes of Cuban hardwoods. The President manifested his warm appreciation of this gift, and his pleasure in the beneficial effects of the steps taken to promote Cuban-American commerce.

The visitors called upon the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State, and the Hon. Henry A. Wallace, Secretary of Agriculture. They also met and conferred with other officials of the Government as well as of business and labor organizations.



THE COMMISSION OF THE SOCIAL-ECONOMIC UNION OF CUBA AT THE PAN AMERICAN UNION.
This photograph, taken August 14, includes members of the Commission and the Director General and Chiefs of Division of the Pan American Union.

On Wednesday the commission visited the Pan American Union. The Director General, Dr. L. S. Rowe, welcomed the visitors and outlined for them the history of the institution and its administrative organization. Dr. Rafael María Angulo, president of the Press Association of Cuba, replied gracefully in the name of the commission, after being introduced by the president, Dr. José Manuel Casanova.

On the evening of the commission's arrival the Hon. Sumner Welles was host at dinner to the Cubans and other distinguished guests. The Ambassador of Cuba, Dr. Guillermo Patterson y de Jáuregui, gave a luncheon in their honor the following day and on Thursday held a reception for them in the Cuban Embassy. The commission entertained their official and unofficial hosts at the Mayflower Hotel on Friday afternoon before they left for Habana.

The commission was composed of the following prominent Cubans:

Sr. JOSÉ MANUEL CASANOVA, president of the Social-Economic Union of Cuba, president of the National Association of Sugar Mill Owners of Cuba, 1st vice-president of the Cuban Institute for the Stabilization of Sugar.

Sr. ANTONIO ANTÓN, 1st vice-president of the Social-Economic Union of Cuba, president of the Joint Committee of Economic Corporations.

Sr. BENIGNO RODRÍGUEZ SÁNCHEZ, 2nd vice-president of the Social Economic Union of Cuba, technical counselor and delegate of the Association of Cane Planters of Cuba.

Sr. ÁNGEL GARRI, 4th vice-president of the Social-Economic Union of Cuba, president of the National Federation of Economic Corporations.

Dr. RAFAEL MARÍA ANGULO, 6th vice-president of the Social-Economic Union of Cuba, president of the Press Association of Cuba.

Dr. ARTURO M. MAÑAS, general secretary of the Social-Economic Union of Cuba, general secretary of the National Association of Sugar Mill Owners of Cuba, member of the Cuban Institute for the Stabilization of Sugar.

Sr. ALFREDO O. CEBERIO, general secretary and legal adviser of the National Association of Manufacturers of Cuba, technical counselor of the Cuban Government in the negotiations of the Reciprocal Trade Agreement between Cuba and the United States.

Sr. EDELBERTO FARRÉS, treasurer of the Social-Economic Union of Cuba, member of the Cuban Institute for the Stabilization of Sugar, delegate of the Association of Cane Planters of Cuba.

Dr. RICARDO MORÁN, member of the Executive Committee of the Social-Economic Union of Cuba, delegate of the Chamber of Commerce of the Republic of Cuba, general secretary of the Association of Fruit and Vegetable Growers and Shippers of Cuba.

Sr. CEFERINO MARTÍNEZ, member of the Executive Committee of the Social-Economic Union of Cuba, general secretary of the Federal Union of Labor of Cuba.

Sr. JOSÉ F. BARRAQUÉ, member of the Executive Committee of the Social-Economic Union of Cuba, president of the *Empresa Naviera de Cuba* (Maritime Corporation of Cuba), member of the Board of Directors of the Habana Produce Exchange.

Sr. GERMÁN BECI, ex-secretary of the Railroad Brotherhood of Cuba.

Sr. JULIO MEDEROS, member of the Executive Committee of the Social-Economic Union of Cuba, president of delegation no. 3 of the Railroad Brotherhood of Sagua, delegate of the Railroad Brotherhood of Cuba.

COUNT DEL RIVERO, member of the Executive Committee of the Social-Economic Union of Cuba, president of the *Diario de la Marina* Publishing Co.

Dr. JULIO D. MONTERO, member of the Board of Directors of the Association of Wholesale Tobacco Jobbers and Growers, member of the National Commission of Propaganda in Defense of Habana Tobacco.

Sr. GUILLERMO PÉREZ LAVIELLE, member of the Executive Committee of the Social-Economic Union of Cuba, delegate of the Association of Journalists of Habana, commercial editor of *El Mundo*, manager of *Noticiero Mercantil*.

Sr. AGUSTÍN LAZO, editor of the *Diario de la Marina* and *Avance*.

Sr. HUGO MAMELIS, member of the staff of *El País* and *Noticiero Mercantil*.



THE CAPITOL, HABANA



THE DIRECTOR GENERAL AND ASSISTANT DIRECTOR OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION ARE HONORED BY THE CUBAN GOVERNMENT

The National Order of Carlos Manuel de Céspedes in the rank of Grand Officer and Commander, respectively, was recently conferred upon Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union, and Dr. E. Gil Borges, Assistant Director, in recognition of their services in the cause of international friendship. His Excellency, Dr. Guillermo Patterson y de Jáuregui, Ambassador of Cuba in Washington, made the presentation.

TRAVELING THROUGH CUBA

By C. R. CAMERON

American Consul General, Habana, Cuba

MATANZAS, the first important city east of Habana, may be reached by rail or by the Central Highway, an excellent automobile road of concrete which connects all the provincial capitals of Cuba. Via the latter, Matanzas is 63 miles distant, measured, as are all distances on this highway, from the diamond in the marble pavement under the dome of the new capitol building. The route apparently follows old roads, being shaded, near Habana at least, with ancient laurels and towering flamboyant (*Delonix regia*) trees. In other sections young trees of various species have been planted, obviously about the time of the construction of this section in 1929. As one approaches Matanzas there appear on the left various abrupt hills, notable among them being the southwestern end of the *Pan de Matanzas*, visible to mariners many miles away. Geologists explain that the Cuban coast sank under the sea and rose again, and that the foundations of the coral reefs which constitute the upper strata of the recently elevated coast in this vicinity, being harder than the calcareous formations upon which they rest, have been worn away by the action of waves and rivers, leaving many detached hills locally known as *mogotes*. Indeed, on the top of some of these, one finds exposed coral reefs resembling those appearing on many beaches near Habana.

The first view of Matanzas as the highway surmounts the lip of its basin is attractive, but the most striking vistas are obtained from the elevation of Monserrate which overlooks both the beautiful Yumuri Valley on the north and the bay and city of Matanzas, with its 42,000 inhabitants, on the south. Matanzas exports quantities of sugar and molasses, importing petroleum products, fertilizer, flour, etc., and has recently secured national legislation establishing a free customs zone on the west side of the bay, where it is hoped to attract manufacturing industries using imported raw materials.

To go from Matanzas to Cienfuegos the traveler may motor over the highway to Esperanza, and then southward over a branch road, 37 miles farther to his destination, known also as the "Pearl of the South". The journey may also be made over the lines of the United Railways, which operate 46 percent of all public service railroads in Cuba, in a car having movable wicker chairs, more comfortable in many respects than Pullman accommodations. The territory traversed is composed largely of porous limestone, covered in many places

by red and black clays of great fertility where sugar and other crops grow riotously. A weathered plain with alternating fields and groves stretches at times to the horizon, with occasional hills of coral rock, and at Jovellanos begins the level area which extends almost uninterruptedly from Sagua on the north coast to Cienfuegos on the south. The landscape in western Santa Clara is characterized by abundant palm trees—not, however, the stately royal palm so characteristic of the most of Cuba, but rather the fan-leaf palms and palmettos.

The city of Cienfuegos is situated on the northwest slope of the shore of a peninsula running into the magnificent Bay of Cienfuegos, 20 miles long and landlocked so closely that the entrance requires skillful navigation. The city has a population of about 37,000, and is a port of importance, exporting annually many millions of dollars' worth of



MAP OF CUBA.

The solid line indicates the Central Highway and the dotted line the route traveled by the author. He made his trip entirely by automobile except for the section between Antilla and Santiago, where he used an airplane.

sugar and molasses, and importing flour, cotton textiles, coal, etc. The Cuban National Aviation Company offers daily airplane service with Habana and Santiago, while clipper ships making the run from Miami to the Panama Canal call here twice a week each way. The wealth of the contributory territory is wholly agricultural, producing not only sugar, coffee, and cattle, but a considerable amount of tobacco, of which the most famous brand is Manicaragua, grown in the mountains to the east and north of the port.

One of the sugar plantations near the city was visited. Here a tract of 30,000 acres, splendidly situated on a river which furnishes cheap water transportation to Cienfuegos Bay, is devoted to sugar, producing daily during the season (beginning January 15) about a thousand 325-pound sacks of sugar until its quota is reached, and for each sack of sugar about five gallons of the "final molasses" so widely used by the manufacturers of alcohol in the United States. The

molasses is stored in tanks, transported in tank-cars, and shipped in tank ships. The jute sacks for the sugar are imported from India.

Sugar cane growing from the planted joints of cane is ready for harvesting in 15 to 18 months, and ratoons from last year's stubble in 12 months or less. The fertility of Cuba's soil is such that many successive crops may be harvested from the stubble without replanting, five or six crops being common, while 20, 30, or even 50 have been recorded. Cane is cut close to the ground by machetes, the cutter developing an extraordinary skill which enables him to sever the cane, trim off the dry leaves, cut the stalk into suitable lengths, and throw the pieces into a nearby pile, all in one almost continuous movement. From the pile, the cane is "lifted" by the cutter to the carts and hauled, usually by four or six yoke of oxen, to the nearest cane switch of the company's railway, where by means of a crane the load is lifted in a sling, weighed, and dropped into a railway car for transportation to the mill.

Not far from Cienfuegos, also, is the Arnold Arboretum in which Harvard University is interested. The arboretum is destined for the investigation and improvement of tropical plants, especially citrus fruits, and for the training of Harvard students in tropical work, some of them being in residence there for several months every year. Its garden has an area of about 80 acres with 3,300 plants of various kinds, including such curiosities as the chaulmoogra shrub of Burma, the source of the most successful remedy for leprosy yet discovered; the ylang-ylang, a Philippine tree producing the well-known perfume of that name; nutmeg trees, etc.



Photograph by C. R. Cameron.

A SUGARCANE CUTTER.

The cane is cut close to the ground with a machete, the cutter developing an extraordinary skill which enables him to sever the cane, trim off the dry leaves, cut the stalk into suitable lengths, and throw the pieces onto a nearby pile, all in one almost continuous motion.



Photograph by C. R. Cameron.

TRANSPORTING SUGARCANE.

With a mule supplying the motive power, this apparatus, known as a *romana*, operates somewhat on the principle of a hayfork, hoisting cane from the carts, weighing it, and transferring the load to railway cars.

Sagua la Grande, on the north coast, is reached by railway through the rich central plain with smoking sugar centrals on every side. The city is situated 11 miles from its port of Isabela, with which it is connected by rail and also by road, as well as by the Sagua River. The latter is listed in the geographies of Cuba as the second navigable river of Cuba, since it offers passage to 7-foot launches for the 12 miles of its course between Sagua and Isabela. The longest navigable river of the island is the Cauto in Oriente Province, which small steamers ply for 50 miles. Isabela is built on a sand-spit and is growing out over swamps and beaches, the house being erected on piles in the water and the streets and lots gradually filled in later with sand and dirt. It was almost destroyed by the hurricane of 1932, but in compensation the same hurricane stranded a lumber ship nearby which had to be lightened by throwing overboard quantities of pine boards; these drifted ashore and enabled the inhabitants to rebuild their town. This little city rejoices in the possession of three names: Isabela, used on maps and Government publications; Concha, the name of the railway station located in the very center of the town and used on railway timetables; and General Pedraza, applied to the port, i. e., the water front. The port, made up of wharves, warehouses, and molasses tanks, accommodates vessels of 17-foot draft, the exports being sugar and molasses.

About two and one-half miles inland from Isabela, where the mangrove swamp joins the coastal plain, a plant has been established for the production of salt by the solar evaporation of sea-water.

A PATIO IN CAMAGÜEY.

This attractive hotel garden contains many specimens of Cuban flora.



As the water increases its percentage of salt, it is pumped from one bed into another, and when it begins to crystallize, it is removed to platforms with hoes, dried, bagged, and sold as *sal grano*. The plant is handicapped on account of the heavy rainfall, which averages 53 inches per annum.

Caibarién, another important port 58 miles by rail east of Sagua, is famous as one of the wealthiest small towns on the island, but its wharves have only shallow water, and the port for sea-going vessels is on a key 15 miles to the northeast, the cargo being handled by lighters. From Caibarién to Santa Clara the traveler passes through a tobacco-producing territory, the variety being known to the trade as *Remedios*, from the name of a near-by city. Almost every house along the automobile road from Camajuani to Santa Clara has a few acres of tobacco. At this season (February) the larger leaves were being cut and hung to wilt on poles staked up a few feet above the ground, later being removed to the barns to continue drying.

The city of Santa Clara, the capital of the Province of the same name, is near the geographic center of the Republic and beautifully situated 367 feet above sea level, encircled by weathered and rounded hills of coral rock. Its attractive central park, faced by hotels and

public buildings, was flaming with scarlet bougainvillea. On an eminence in a southern suburb is a handsome new structure, the Palace of Justice, erected for the use of the courts. This city marks the eastern terminus of the United Railways and the western terminus of the Consolidated Railroads, the two systems dividing between them almost all the public-service railroads of Cuba.

Camagüey, the capital of the Province of the same name, lies 168 miles east of Santa Clara and is connected with the latter by the main lines of both railroad and highway. In eastern Santa Clara cattle ranges begin to appear and the rolling country, which also extends over western Camagüey, seems ideal for grazing. Camagüey, indeed, is the cattle Province par excellence, having about one-third of all the cattle in Cuba, but it is also notable for its sugar, producing almost 30 per cent of the total sugar output of Cuba. The capital has 150,000 inhabitants and is a historic city of ancient churches

ROYAL PALMS.

Royal palms characterize the Cuban landscape, especially along the water courses, and satisfy many needs of the Cuban farmer. The leaves furnish thatch for the houses and shade for tobacco; their long petioles, which clasp the trunks, serve as siding for the houses and wrapping for tobacco bales; the blooms are the source of excellent honey; the oily nuts fatten swine; the wiry, finely divided raceme, stripped of its fruit, is used as a broom; the trunk is made into boards and posts; and the bud is good human food.



Photograph by C. R. Cameron.

and traditions of pirate raids and services rendered in the cause of *Cuba Libre* during the long wars of independence.

At Nuevitas, another important northern coast port 45 miles from Camagüey, the ships of Columbus anchored in 1492; it is reached by train over a branch of the Consolidated Railroads. On the north side of the railroad the traveler sees heaps of freshly dug earth, indicating the locations where chrome ore is being mined and shipped, this being at present the most important mineral production of the Province. Nuevitas itself, with about 5,000 inhabitants, has little commerce, but is made important by reason of its three sub-ports. One of the latter, Tarafa, opposite Nuevitas on the same peninsula, takes its name from the principal promoter of the Cuban Northern Railways, an important pioneer line (now absorbed by the Consolidated Railroads) extending through the coastal area from Santa Clara to this port, tapping a rich sugar area. All the public-service railroads in Cuba are losing money, but those in eastern Cuba are better situated than those in the west, since the former serve the greater distances of the eastern Provinces where the sugar crop is larger, the hauls are longer, and the competition of highways is less severe.

Proceeding eastward on the main line of the railroad from Camagüey, one sees fairly level land with a few detached hills until, having reached western Oriente, mountains appear on the southern horizon a little beyond Victoria de las Tunas and thenceforward are never out of sight. Cattle and sugar characterize this portion of Cuba, and near Alto Cedro an impressive landscape opens up. To the south, the fertile upper valley of the Cauto River, flowing westward toward



Photograph by C. R. Cameron.

BUS STATION AT HOLGUÍN, ORIENTE PROVINCE.

Half a dozen bus lines ply the Central Highway from Santiago to Habana and to Pinar del Río, making the trip in from 16 to 20 hours.



Photograph by C. R. Cameron.

HAULING MANGANESE ORE IN CUBA.

At the concentration plant at Cristo, near Santiago, use of the flotation process greatly raises the percentage of manganese concentrates obtained from low grade ore.

Manzanillo, is covered at this season with the rich yellow of the ripening sugar cane, which stretches away as far as the eye can reach, while to the north a scarcely less impressive vista of cane extends toward Antilla and Nipe Bay.

From Alto Cedro, 320 feet above sea level, a branch line of the railroad runs to Antilla, the main line here turning south toward Santiago, 47 miles away. The terrain now becomes rougher and the railway climbs through the valleys, but at San Luis, where the Guantánamo railway branches off to the east, is another rich sugar plain. Soon, however, the line reaches the summit and begins to descend to Santiago through a valley of luxuriant vegetation notably more tropical than that of the central plains. The chilly northern winds of winter at times sweep the plain, 300 feet above sea level, which the railway has traversed with little variation in altitude all the way from Camagüey, but they obviously do not reach this southern slope.

Santiago de Cuba, once the capital of the island, is a most interesting city, both economically and politically. The capital of Oriente Province, it is beautifully situated on rapidly rising ground at the head of a splendid bay, with precipitous, though not high, mountains in the background which geologists assert are very recent. It has about 110,000 inhabitants in the center, and is a modern city, now making a strenuous effort to extend and improve its public services. This, the site of distilleries of famous brands of Cuban rum and of

numerous other factories, railway shops, et cetera, has a numerous and influential proletariat.

With the history of Santiago de Cuba, founded in 1514, are interwoven the names of Diego de Velásquez, Father de las Casas, Hernán Cortez, Hernando de Soto, Adelina Patti,¹ and many others familiar to the readers of American history. Sixteen miles east of the city, at Siboney Beach, United States forces landed in 1898, and in the advance on Santiago participated in memorable actions at El Caney and San Juan Hill, the latter only two miles east of the city. The last-named hill is now crowned by a beautiful park, which has preserved the original trenches and is adorned with cannon, flowers, and shrubbery, offering a vantage point where one may enjoy a splendid view of the battlefields.

The port has an extensive import and export commerce, is the terminus of the main line of the Consolidated Railroads as well as of the Central Highway, and has daily airplane connection with Habana and intermediate cities. Oriente Province ranks first in area and population among all the Provinces of Cuba, surpassing in the production of sugar, coffee, bananas, and dairy products. Manganese is mined at Cristo, 14 miles north of Santiago de Cuba. This development is of interest to metallurgists as the first commercially successful application of the flotation process to the concentration of low-grade manganese ores.

The rail route from Santiago to Antilla lies through Alto Cedro and from the latter point traverses a level country covered with vast plantations of sugar cane. The city of Antilla itself, situated on a promontory jutting from the north into Nipe Bay, is approached by rail over a causeway built across a shallow arm of the sea. It has a population of about 5,000 people, and is important because of its sub-ports, exporting sugar, molasses, and some lumber, and importing edibles, jute bags, and machinery for the great sugar centrals and mining properties located around the bay.

A visit was made to a central which has 58,000 acres under cane, 180 miles of standard gauge railway, and 10,000 laborers engaged in the *zafra* (sugar harvest) in progress at the time. At least 25,000 people are dependent upon this central which, with three enormous tandem mills placed side by side, produces a veritable river of cane juice which in a few hours completes the circuit of filters, evaporators, and centrifugals, and forms another river of white sugar—about 8,000 bags each 24 hours. This central has, besides the usual high-wheeled oxcarts for transporting cane from the field to the railroad, numerous trucks equipped with caterpillars in place of wheels, hauled by oxen and particularly valuable in wet weather. This central has built many houses for its laborers, provided an excellent hospital,

¹ Patti is said to have made her debut at Santiago de Cuba.—EDITOR.

and almost entirely exterminated malaria among its resident population.

The return trip from Antilla to Santiago was made by airplane, affording an opportunity to appreciate from the air the beauties of Nipe Bay and the surrounding country covered with sugar cane, as well as the forest of pines (*Pinus cubensis*) on the mountains just south which furnish logs to the saw mills of Antilla. From Santiago to Manzanillo the journey was made over the Central Highway which here runs far south of the railway, at first through the foothills of the Sierra Maestra range, then drawing away from the mountains and traversing a splendid sugar and cattle country to Bayamo. The latter, a city of 18,000 people, is the most important dairy



Photograph by C. R. Cameron.

CENTRAL PLAZA OF MANZANILLO.

The port of southwestern Oriente Province lies 112 miles west of Santiago.

center of Cuba, having well-known cheese factories and milk-canning establishments. The milk is said to be of excellent quality and some is brought by truck over the Central Highway from points more than 100 miles distant.

Oriente Province has always been noted for its spirit of independence, and the route from Santiago to Manzanillo is historic ground. At Yara, 10 miles east of Manzanillo, was begun on October 10, 1868, the bloody and devastating 'Ten Years' War, during which Cuban independence was proclaimed, the first Cuban national flag used, and a constitution abolishing slavery adopted. At Baïre, 22 miles east of Bayamo, on February 24, 1895, was begun the last Cuban rebellion which ended with independence in 1898.

Manzanillo is situated partly on a shelving promontory of coral rock, and partly on the narrow coastal plain. Its commerce, like that of all the other ports visited, is largely dependent upon sugar and molasses for exports, and for imports upon food-stuffs, machinery, and general supplies.

Between Manzanillo and Bayamo the traveler may go by rail or by road, the latter used mostly in the dry season. From Bayamo the journey was continued northward over the Central Highway, traversing the Cauto River plain and cattle country, to the rich agricultural center of Holguín, one of the most populous municipalities of the island. Near the city is located one of the most famous



Photograph by C. R. Cameron.

REMAINS OF A BLOCKHOUSE NEAR CIEGO DE ÁVILA.

During the last War for Independence concrete blockhouses or "fortines" were erected by the Spaniards in a 40-mile line across the narrow neck of the island in a vain effort to prevent the revolutionists from passing from one end of the island to the other.

gold quartz mines of Cuba (Aguas Claras). The return journey was broken at Ciego de Ávila, where in the last revolutionary struggle the Spaniards constructed a famous *trocha*, a line of block-houses (*fortines*) one kilometer apart, across the island to interrupt the communications of the revolutionists. Numbers of these crumbling concrete *fortines* are visible from the road, and a few miles to the north one passes a monument marking the spot where General Antonio Maceo broke through the *trocha* on November 29, 1895, during the famous "invasion" when the revolutionary troops marched in 90 days from Mangos de Baraguá, in eastern Oriente, to Mantua on the western coast of Pinar del Río.

At Ceballos, eight miles north of Ciego, there are considerable plantations of oranges and tangerines, which put on the market annually about 40 million citrus fruits. The varieties of fruit are so distributed as to provide a continuous production throughout the year. In this control of maturing seasons the planters are greatly assisted by irrigation, which enables them to hasten or, by withholding the water, to retard the crops. For this purpose, water is pumped from wells driven 60 or 70 feet in depth, tapping an apparently inexhaustible supply. It was very dry at the time of this visit, and all the wells were being pumped, one having delivered



Photograph by C. R. Cameron.

CUBAN TOBACCO.

Tobacco of the famous Remedios section is shown hung up on poles in the field to wilt prior to being taken to the barns for drying.

2,700 gallons per minute during 17 hours a day for several days without sign of a failing supply.

To cross Cuba from Habana to Batabanó makes an interesting trip. The latter port, on the Caribbean, lies 36 miles away, almost due south of the capital. The road, in fair condition, passes through great groves of royal palms and rolling hinterland, giving an excellent idea of the Cuban landscape. As one crosses the summit and proceeds down the gentle southern slope, the land becomes more fertile and the country is well cultivated with great plantations of sugar cane, corn, yuca (cassava), pineapples, and malanga (arum), with groves of bananas, mangos, and coconuts. Batabanó, together with its port, called Surgidero, about a mile from the city, has a population of three or four thousand people. From Surgidero

steamers maintain a regular tri-weekly service with the Isle of Pines, but sponging is the principal industry, and at times many scores of small sloops, which make up the sponging fleet, gather in the almost unprotected bay. Sponges are fished by grapples, each small boat sent out from the sloops having a crew of two, one to row and the other with a water-glass to examine the bottom. When the latter sees a sponge, he seizes it with the grapple, fixed on a pole 25 or 30 feet long. The sponges when gathered are taken to the mother sloop, constructed with a large open tank in the center in which the sponges are kept until, as the fishermen say, they "die." To the unsophisticated, however, it would appear that they are left to decay until the pulp around the sponge fibre is sufficiently soft to permit its being washed out, this process producing an odor which is not easily forgotten. The sponges are then washed and cleaned and strung up on ropes to the mainmast so that the sloop which has made a good catch is often seen festooned with long streamers of sponges.

Westward from Habana along the Central Highway toward Pinar del Río, 109 miles distant, the route leads through the beautiful suburban residential section of Habana, where in the month of June the flamboyant trees are covered with their vermilion blossoms, making a striking feature of the landscape. Notwithstanding its brilliance during the flowering season, the beauty of its fern-like foliage during the remainder of the year, and the gnarled stateliness of the older specimens, this tree seems to be planted sparingly. The highway makes many turns, and is bordered by laurel trees and Australian pines (*Casuarina equisetifolia*). In the great level area stretching from Rincón, south of the highway, to Artemisa is produced a high grade of tobacco, known as *Partidos*, which has a large light-colored leaf of fine texture, prized as a wrapper for cigars.

Artemisa is the center of pineapple cultivation and great fields of this fruit appear. Near Candelaria is a pineapple canning factory where a multitude of girls in white caps and aprons, with rubber gloves, trim and cut up the fruit, which is packed in 6-pound cans for use almost exclusively in the United States for confections, soda fountains, et cetera.

Beyond San Cristóbal the road runs closer to the Órganos Mountains or rather the mountains, projecting to the south, approach the highway, and from this point as far as Pinar del Río the countryside is dotted with great tobacco barns. First comes the zone of *Semi Vuelta*, whose aroma is not quite as perfect as that of the *Vuelta Abajo* tobacco. The landscape, now rolling and dotted with cultivated fields and groves, affords beautiful vistas, the royal and palmetto palms being mixed with various varieties of bottle palms. About

four miles before Pinar del Río is reached, the new army barracks are a conspicuous feature on the south side of the road.

Pinar del Río itself, a city of about 20,000 people on a gentle slope which stretches away 20 miles southwest to the Caribbean, is the center of the most famous tobacco-producing area in the world. Here is grown the *Vuelta Abajo*, from which are manufactured cigars unequalled for aroma and flavor. The district producing this choice tobacco extends only about 10 miles from north to south and 30 miles from east to west, the city of Pinar del Río being at about the center. Even here, the very choicest product comes from small *vegas*, or tobacco fields, a few acres in extent scattered here and there.



VIÑALES VALLEY.

Famed for its picturesqueness is the Viñales Valley in the Province of Pinar del Río.

Just east of the city the road to Viñales, 17 miles away, branches off the Central Highway. It is now being repaired and crosses first the alluvial valley of the Paso Viejo River and then gently rises through the foothills of the Órganos Mountains. Great thickets of guava trees, now covered with blossoms and small fruit, grow on either side of the road on what seems to be public land and from time to time marañón, or cashew, trees (*Anacardium occidentale*) are seen, laden with yellowing fruit. Tobacco occasionally appears, but there are also scattering plantations of corn and yuca, while to the south open up attractive vistas of the Caribbean plain along the northern margin of which runs the Central Highway.

The first glimpse of the far-famed Viñales Valley itself was obtained at mile 16 from Pinar del Río, where the road reaches the rim of the depression. The abruptness of this first view adds to the impressiveness of the valley, here two or three miles wide, apparently the work of a stream which in geological ages wrought strange shapes on the basin's rocky margins. From the floor rise various *mogotes*, or islands of rock, the stream having washed away the foundations and induced successive landslides, or rather, rockslides, leaving the sharp escarpments. The towering, broken wall on the far side of the valley, of hard, blue Paleozoic limestone, likewise weathered and worn into bold, sometimes overhanging, cliffs, is full of caves and ravines. Near the center of the basin nestles the thriving village of Viñales, for the region is famous, not only for its scenery, but for its fruit and tobacco.

With the visit to the unique Viñales Valley, this story of travel comes to an end. The sketch is fragmentary and can give the reader but a poor idea of the island so well named "Pearl of the Antilles." One can sympathize with Columbus, who wrote of Cuba in 1492: "This is the fairest land which human eyes have ever seen." But the modern has one advantage over the discoverer, and perhaps where words have failed, the photographs may be of assistance.



AIRMINDED HONDURAS

By FRANS BLOM

Director, Department of Middle American Research, The Tulane University of Louisiana

INDIANS labored slowly up over the mountain trails, panting under their burdens of more than a hundred pounds. Day after day they trotted and climbed, and at last came to the high valley, among wild mountains where now lies Tegucigalpa, the capital of the Republic of Honduras.

From the north coast they had first passed through the humid and tropical lowlands, through corn fields and plantations of cacao. The corn was their food and the cacao bean was money, so precious that only the rich could permit themselves to roast the bean and use it as a delicious drink.

These Indian carriers were weighed down under their burdens of corn, tobacco, and salt brought by traders who came in dugout canoes, from the distant salt-pans of northern Yucatan, two to three weeks distant from the north coast. Or they carried cargoes of obsidian, the volcanic glass that all their people used for knives.

Then the caravan reached the mountains and arid valleys. Through scorching sun they labored upward and upward, starting before dawn and not resting until they camped by a cool mountain stream in the evening.

This was before the white sails of Spanish ships first were sighted.

Then came the Spaniard, and he brought horses and mules. Fierce was the fight. Two cultures clashed and after the battle they merged.

The roads were the same, and the forbidding mountain barriers did not change. The innovation was the pack-horse and mule. New cargoes were added because the Spaniards searched for gold and silver, and there was much precious metal in Honduras.

So for some centuries in addition to the Indian carriers, there were to be seen on the roads long strings of pack animals, loaded down with ore or sacks and bags of the little beans from the bush—coffee—introduced by the newcomers.

The strange weed, that was so pleasant and billowed out in clouds of smoke from the mouth, became a favorite among the foreigners and they shipped great loads of it home to their country beyond the ocean, Ultra Mar. But the new means of transport did not speed up traveling, though it doubled the cargo per unit of carrier. The mule would carry 200 pounds against the 100 pounds carried by the Indian.



THE MAIN "TACA" OFFICE IN HONDURAS.

The airport of the capital, Tegucigalpa, is just outside the city at Toncontin. Note the map on the rear wall showing the extensive network of air lines and 76 landing fields.

Then a couple of centuries passed and strange things began to happen. First came long serpents of steel, carrying snorting animals that pulled huge boxes. Locomotives pulled merchandise to the mountains' edge, and on their return gathered up the luscious bunches of golden fruits, bananas. But still the mountains were too fierce and the "iron horses" stopped at their foot.

Next came another ground animal, lighter and swifter, but stinking—the automobile—and broad roads began to climb the mountains in tortuous convolutions. From the railhead in the tropics, through luxurious and rank vegetation, the road climbed up through rich valleys where orchids hang in incredibly splendid clusters overhead. Through pine-clad hills and into dust-parched valleys, the road reached Comayagua, Tegucigalpa, and continued to the Pacific coast.

Now traveling was faster, and greater loads could be carried. And with this more rapid transportation came new objects and new ideas.

Then one day a huge strange bird zoomed over Tegucigalpa and came to rest on a field outside the city. What was this? What did it mean?

Everyone in Honduras realized that it would cost untold millions to construct rail and automobile roads through the endless valleys and over the mighty mountains of the country. It was impossible, and as the riches of the country—such as the mines and the agricultural valleys, the timberland and the tropics—lay between huge barriers of rock, it was out of the question to finance such stupendous undertakings.

Now came the bird that passed through space, light and powerful, being stopped by neither mountain nor torrential river. And Honduras realized its value; the government from the outset gave its support to those who would develop air transportation; it became air-minded.

The start was stumbling, erratic, and unfortunately showed many fatalities. Some of the first organizers were more enthusiastic than careful. But such conditions are past now.

And right here credit should be given to Lowell Yerex. It was he who built up the TACA (Transportes Aéreas Centro-Americanas) to the efficient and well-functioning organization it is today, and we feel sure that he will agree with us that he would not have been so successful if the government of Honduras had not given him its fullest support and confidence and if the people of Honduras had not "taken to the water like ducks"—pardon me, I should have said: "taken to the air like birds." Honduras became air-minded very quickly. Let us see what is happening today.

The Republic of Honduras covers a territory about as large as the State of Ohio, but we must discount about one third, a vast area of practically unexplored country. Unknown for all practical purposes as yet, that is, though I am confident that the airplane is going to be one of the principal factors in opening up those wild mountains and valleys.

Today everything and everybody takes to the air. Let us spend a while at the Toncontín airport, at the edge of the capital, Tegucigalpa.

On a large plateau stretches the field, so large that the super-modern Douglas planes of the Pan-American Airways come and go without trouble, settle down to unload and load for a few minutes on their long flight down the continent. All around are mountains, and not far away rise the twin towers of the powerful government radio station.

But near the huge long-distance birds cluster smaller birds of lesser power. Those are the TACA flock, 13 or 14 ships of all shapes, sizes and makes. It has to be this way, because the 76 landing fields in Honduras are of all shapes and sizes, like the cargoes that must be flown.

There lands a ship from Choluteca with 600 pounds of milk and butter for the capital. The morning milkwagon. Over there a ship is leaving with machinery for a silver mine that is opening. A party of visitors are taking off for the incredibly spectacular Maya ruins at Copán, where the Carnegie Institution of Washington is cooperating with the government of Honduras in works of excavation and restoration. It is only a two-hour trip, and the government has built a landing field, right next to the ruins, large enough to receive a trimotored plane. It used to be a five-day ride.

The TACA will handle the traffic. Dr. Brosius, out among the mountains at Minas de Oro, ships in milk, cream, and, in season, strawberries, too. Waiter, please bring the sugar!

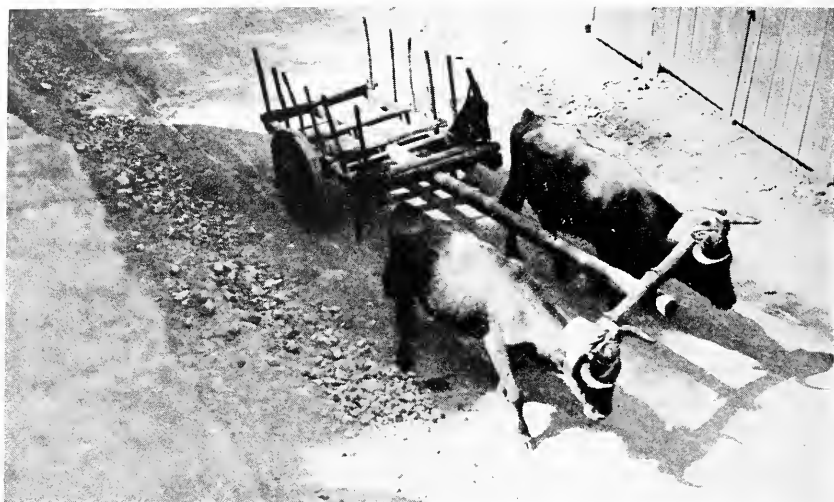
Here goes an hacendado. He has been visiting the capital and now is returning home. TACA will land him within a few hours' mule-ride from his house, and he will save days of tiresome traveling—plus the annoyance and cost of transporting mama, the five children, and two or three servants, plus not only the bags but also those innumerable bundles and card-board boxes, containing presents from friends, that always follow along.

At the airport we meet the Hon. Julius Lay, the American Minister, who came in to close his house before his transfer to Montevideo, and in the center of a large group we see His Excellency, the Minister of Public Instruction, Jesús María Rodríguez, on his way to San Pedro Sula. He is traveling in one of the fast government planes piloted by a crack Honduran flyer.



THE TONCONTÍN AIRPORT, TEGUCIGALPA.

Regularly scheduled flights total more than 80,000 air miles monthly with 1,200 passengers and 200,000 pounds of freight carried. Upper: A general view of the airport. The operating office is at the right and a hangar in left background. Lower: Passengers boarding plane.



PRIMITIVE TRANSPORTATION IN HONDURAS.

While the Republic has become decidedly air-minded, earlier means of transportation still have their use.
Upper: An ox cart. Lower: A mule pack-train loaded with \$96,000 in silver bars.

People fly in Honduras. The little brown-eyed maid of the hacendado takes it just as naturally as the President, Don Tiburcio Carías, and his private secretary, Don Carlos Izaguirre.

But it is not only the people, from the highest official to the little fellow, that fly in Honduras. It is every merchandise that can be flown.

While I chatted with the pilots I heard of strange cargoes, ranging from mining machinery, tobacco, hides, and salt to parrots, fighting-cocks, and monkeys. Butter-and-egg planes are usual, and sometimes that great orchid hunter, James B. Edwards, ships strange and exotic plants to the Arnold Arboretum at Harvard. They even ship archaeologists and land them in distant places from where they continue on foot or mule in their search for mysterious Maya cities.

There are about 100 people employed in connection with the TACA; and 80 percent are Hondurans. They use 76 landing fields, nearly all constructed within the last four years. There are 42 scheduled flights per week with a total of more than 80,000 air miles per month, carrying about 1200 passengers and 200,000 pounds of freight. Ninety percent of the flights are completed in spite of much blind flying over the mountains—and this includes the rainy season that begins in September and goes right through with its torrential downpours to February.

We must not forget the north coast, the country where the banana rules. Formerly the mountains were such a formidable barrier that the fruit companies imported their rice, eggs, vegetables, and other perishable commodities from the United States. Not far away, but behind the mountains, lies the rich Catacamas valley, where vegetables can be grown without fear of tropical insect pests.

Thanks to air transportation, that rich but isolated valley now is delivering fresh vegetables, eggs, chickens, etc., to the north coast daily. And the vegetables are fresh because there is only a few hours' flying-distance between the field and the market. Rice comes cheaper by air from the Pacific coast than by boat from the distant United States of America.

Even the old smoking-weed has taken to the air. Copán tobacco, long famous, and expensive because of transportation cost, has gone "sky high", not as to price but as to the way it reaches the coast.

Every day something more is going to move above the mountains of Honduras. As you fly high up above, you see below the ancient trails where the men of Lempira, the great chief, used to walk. Many of their descendants are still walking down there, looking like small hardworking ants carrying great burdens. The iron horse is full of vigor and the gasoline pony is far from dead. But Honduras is air-minded and will before long look down on that class of transportation, placing it among prehistoric things.

THE USE OF TRIANGULATION IN BOUNDARY SURVEYS

BY WILLIAM BOWIE, C. E., SC. D.

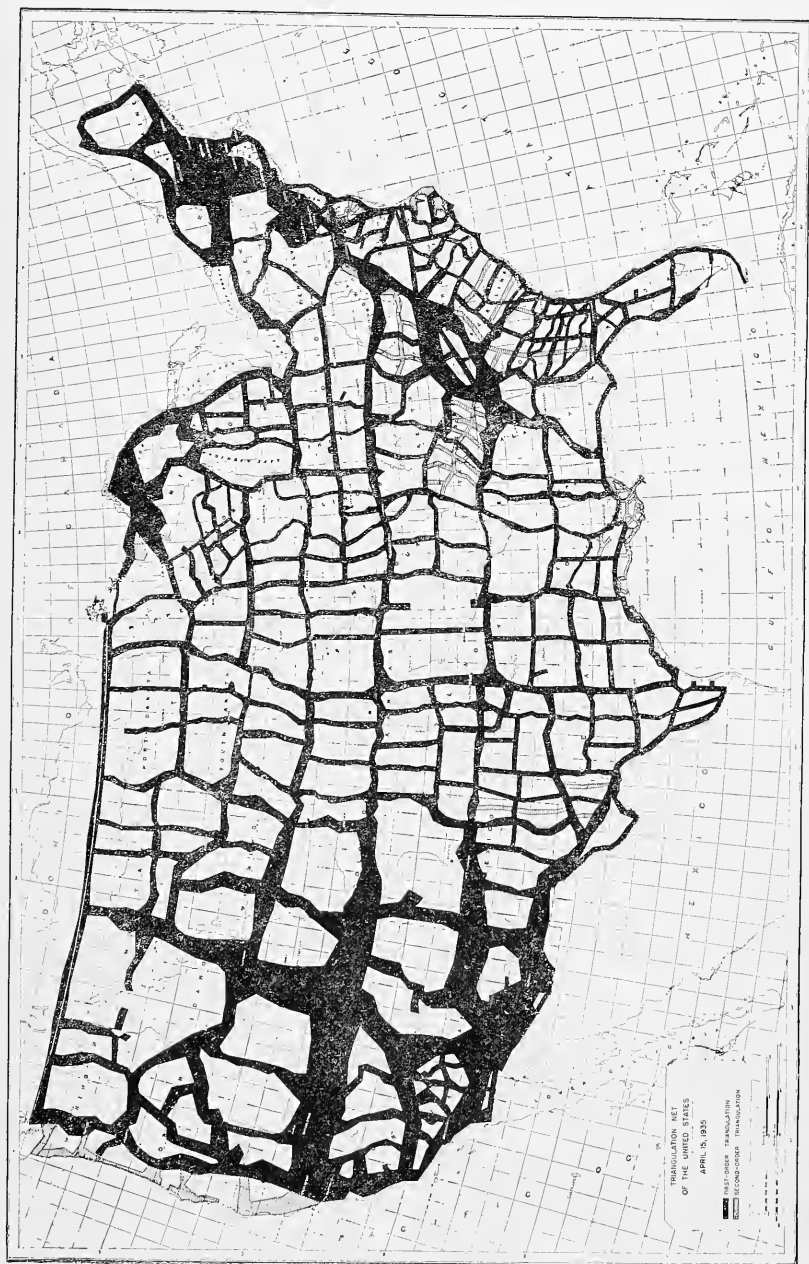
Chief of the Division of Geodesy, U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey; Honorary President, Pan American Institute of Geography and History; President of the International Geodetic and Geophysical Union; and Chairman of the Division of Surveying and Mapping of the American Society of Civil Engineers.

THERE are many ways of surveying a boundary line between nations, between political subdivisions of a country or between two pieces of private land. Whatever method is used, it has been found by experience that the most satisfactory results are obtained if the surveys are based on triangulation.

Triangulation is a method of surveying based upon the mathematical principle that if the length of one side of a triangle and the angles of the triangle are known, the lengths of the other two sides can be computed. In actual practice, a triangle side called a base line is measured with great accuracy. The work is done with invar tapes or wires. Invar is an alloy of nickel and steel that has a very low coefficient of expansion, therefore the invar tape's changes in temperature during measurements have negligible effects. Of course the temperature of the tape is determined by thermometer readings, but the thermometer which gives the temperature of the air does not always indicate exactly the temperature of the tape; this difference is of no consequence when the invar alloy is used. A base line may be from 4 to 15 miles in length, depending upon the character of the country.

The highest points are used as the triangulation stations; they may be the tops of peaks, hills or ridges. Metal tablets are set in outcropping rock or in blocks of concrete to mark the stations. Theodolites, in principle like the surveyor's transit except that they are larger and very much more refined, are used for measuring the angles of the triangles formed by the monumented points on hills and ridges. The error in the measured angles of a triangle is seldom greater than one second of an arc. The two sides of an angle of one second diverge only 12 inches at a distance of 40 miles. This gives one an idea of the great accuracy with which angles are measured.

The lengths of the triangle sides or distances between the stations vary according to the character of the country. In flat, heavily wooded areas, the stations are from 5 to 10 miles apart, while in mountain areas the distance between contiguous stations may be 50



Courtesy of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey.

TRIANGULATION NET OF THE UNITED STATES, APRIL 15, 1935.

The solid black portions designate first order triangulation, and the shaded portions second-order triangulation.

miles or more. What are generally called "chains of triangles" are carried across the country or along a boundary line. Observations are made on the boundary monuments from the triangulation stations in order to determine the latitude and longitude of the former.

By means of mathematical formulae the lengths of the sides of the triangles can be computed from the measured base for distances across country of 100 miles or more, when a new base must be measured to check the computed lengths of the triangle sides. In general, the computed and the measured lengths of the new base agree within one part in 25,000 of the length of the base, or at the rate of approximately 2 inches per mile. Adjustments are then made to distribute through the chain of triangles this difference of length in the base.

Triangulation necessarily has to depend upon astronomical observations for the determination of the latitude and longitude of a starting point and also the astronomical direction of one of the sides of a triangle. The astronomical observations can be made with great accuracy but they are referred to the plumb line or the direction of gravity and that is affected by the irregular surface of the earth. A mountain mass will deflect the plumb line towards it and a valley will deflect the plumb line away from it. In actual practice, many astronomical determinations of the latitude and longitude are made and an average position for one triangulation station is derived from all of the astronomical observations. For North America the initial triangulation station is called Meades Ranch, in central Kansas. Its astronomical latitude and longitude were derived from several hundred astronomical stations in the United States.

With the latitude and longitude of a station obtained from astronomical observations and the lengths of the bases and the angles of the triangles known, it is possible to compute the latitude and longitude of each of the triangulation stations. It is this information that is used in the determination of the positions on the earth's surface of the monuments of a boundary.

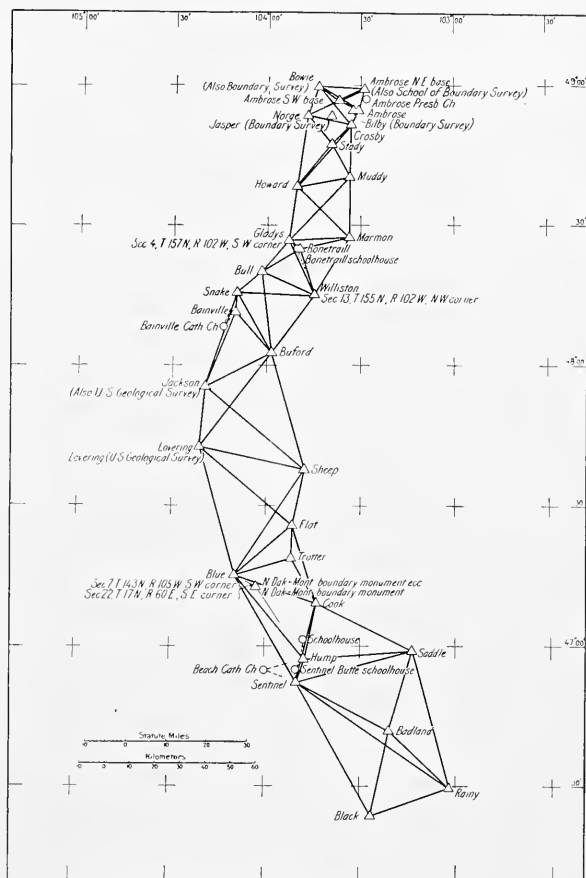
Each nation is vitally interested in its surveying and mapping operations. The ultimate object is to obtain a topographic map which represents a portion of the earth's surface and shows all data that may be essential to the efficient planning of the activities of mankind. The topographic map, in order to be most useful, must be accurate in position, distance, direction, elevation, slope and area. The geodetic or control surveys furnish the basis for the topographic map just as the steel framework of the modern office building is the basis for all the detailed parts of the structure.

For many years triangulation has been carried on in this country by the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey. A small amount of this class of work has been done by the Corps of Engineers of the United States Army, several river commissions, the Lake Survey and

the United States Geological Survey. The engineers of the Coast and Geodetic Survey are following a plan which calls for the spacing of the arcs of triangulation at intervals of approximately 25 miles over the whole country. At present there are approximately 65,000 miles of arcs of first and second order triangulation in the United States and at the present rate of progress it would be possible to complete the remaining 51,000 miles needed to finish the fundamental network of

ARC OF TRIANGULATION.

Showing connections with state boundary monuments and with stations of the Canada-United States boundary survey.



Courtesy of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey.

arcs with the 25-mile spacing in less than three years. The stations, tens of thousands of them in number, of these triangulation arcs serve as the starting and ending points for detailed surveys. It is planned that within the 25-mile meshes of this triangulation net additional triangulation stations will be established with a spacing of from five to seven miles. Such a distribution of stations will be needed for the control of the topographic mapping and for many other engineering operations.

There is an arc of triangulation extending along the 49th parallel west of Lake of the Woods, along the boundary between Canada and the United States. This triangulation is connected directly with many of the boundary monuments and indirectly with other monuments near the boundary. There is also first-order triangulation through the Great Lakes and down the St. Lawrence River to the northern boundary of New York and thence eastward.

MONUMENT ON THE
BOUNDARY BE-
TWEEN THE
UNITED STATES
AND MEXICO.



Courtesy of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey.

While there is no arc of triangulation directly along the boundary between the United States and Mexico, yet there is an arc very close to that boundary and a number of the monuments have been connected along that part of the boundary lying westward of the Río Grande. There is an arc of triangulation in Texas along the Río Grande or close to it, and therefore surveys to delineate the boundary between the two countries can be based on the triangulation stations of this arc.

Arcs of triangulation have been extended along certain parts of the boundary between the states of Texas and Oklahoma. There are other state boundaries near which triangulation has been done. In all cases where an arc of triangulation follows or crosses a state boundary, the longitude and latitude of one or more of the boundary monuments are determined. It is not known just what will be the future developments in the making of state boundary surveys, but it is probable that eventually the boundary monuments for all of the state lines will be connected with the national triangulation net. When this has been done there will never be any question as to the exact location of a boundary monument. If a monument were removed or destroyed, the geodetic engineer could reestablish within a few inches the point on the ground that was occupied by the center of the monument.

There have been controversies in several of our states over the positions of county boundaries. This difficulty could be avoided if county officials would agree on the boundary line and then have monuments along that line connected with triangulation. There is a growing demand for more accurate boundary surveys of public lands, such as forests and parks. There is also an increasing demand for more accurate determinations of the positions of monuments on the boundaries of private land. Much litigation could be avoided, and hence costs to political subdivisions of the nation and to individuals reduced, if boundary surveys could be more accurately and permanently located.

There will be little or no excuse for poor boundary surveys in this country after the triangulation has been completed. A great number of triangulation stations will be available that can be used as the starting points for such surveys. Even at present many boundary lines can easily be connected with the triangulation net.

Where there is an arc of triangulation along an international boundary, the maps of the two adjoining countries will show the topographic features lying on or near the boundary in exactly the same geographical position. Maps of adjoining countries showing different positions for topographic features, such as rivers, mountains, roads, trails, forests, houses, villages and other things, have led to misunderstandings. There is an old saying regarding farm lands: "Good fences make good neighbors." It is equally true that good boundary surveys make for friendship between peoples of two adjoining countries. Triangulation makes it possible to have good maps and undisputed boundaries.

THE GUATEMALA-HONDURAS BOUNDARY SURVEY

By SIDNEY H. BIRDSEYE

*Chief, Technical Commission for the Demarcation of the Boundary Line between
Guatemala and Honduras*

DURING colonial times the Spanish colony in Central America was known as the Kingdom¹ of Guatemala. This kingdom was divided into several provinces, each having a local governor who usually reported directly to the Captain General of the Kingdom of Guatemala. Apparently it was the intention of the Spanish Crown to have the judicial divisions of the colony correspond, more or less, to the various dioceses of the Church, but no precise limits were established for any of these judicial or ecclesiastical subdivisions. Many of the colonial documents and decrees of the Crown differed in their descriptions of the boundaries of the various subdivisions, but this was not considered a serious matter during Spanish rule, as the Crown owned everything in Central America and disputes regarding local administrative control were relatively unimportant to the King.

In 1821 the Kingdom of Guatemala declared its independence from Spain and formed the Federation of Central American States, which included the separate States of Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica. The boundaries of these state divisions of the Federation were to conform to the territorial limits of the original provincial divisions of the kingdom. Later, in 1838, the Federation was dissolved and the States became independent republics.

The development of the country prior to 1821 had been confined to isolated settlements and, as the majority of the country between them was practically an unexplored jungle, it was only natural that documentary descriptions of the provincial boundaries should have been vague and indefinite. As each Republic developed its natural resources in the years following independence, boundary disputes arose between the adjacent countries. Most of the territorial claims were based on old Spanish documents, both judicial and ecclesiastical, and the various interpretations thereof made the solution of these disputes very difficult.

The first attempt to settle the boundary dispute between Guatemala and Honduras, made in 1845, was unsuccessful. Several others were made at intervals but nothing definite was accomplished until the

¹ Also called Captaincy General, since it was governed by a Captain General.—EDITOR.

signing of the Treaty of Arbitration of July 16, 1930. This treaty authorized the formation of a neutral Boundary Tribunal with ample powers to make a definite settlement of the question, both Governments agreeing in advance to accept the tribunal's decision as final. The Special Boundary Tribunal consisted of the Hon. Chas. Evans Hughes, Chief Justice of the U. S. Supreme Court, as President, with Dr. Luis Castro Ureña of Costa Rica and Dr. Emilio Bello Codesido of Chile as arbitrators.

Such colonial maps of the disputed area as existed were conflicting and inaccurate. Later surveys made by both republics were confined to the southern section of the zone. The major part of the northern section was sparsely inhabited and practically unmapped. The tribunal, after careful study of the various claims and documents, found it necessary to prepare a reasonably accurate map of a large section of the area before it could reach a final decision. Owing to the very limited time available, it was decided to use aerial photographic methods in making the survey. The aerial survey of some 2,500 square miles of the disputed zone was ordered in July 1932, with delivery date of the maps set for December 31 of the same year. The U. S. State Department, Geological Survey and Army Air Corps cooperated in this survey by lending aerial and engineering equipment and providing trained personnel when necessary. The Army Air Corps assigned the taking of four-lens aerial photographs of the area in dispute to the 12th Photo Section at France Field, Colon, C. Z., and the work was done by Capt. Herbert K. Baisly, pilot, and Sgt. Barron C. Powers, photographer. The writer was placed in charge of the survey and field work, which was started in August 1932. Advance copies of the completed maps were delivered to the tribunal on December 23, 1932. These maps were drawn on a scale of 1:100,000 and show all drainage and most of the cultural details, also such topographic features as main water divides and prominent mountain peaks. The award was published by the tribunal on January 23, 1933, and the maps and aerial photographs were attached as an official part of it.

The boundary line, as established by this award, is approximately 260 kilometers (161 miles) long. In some sections the line follows water courses, in other sections it follows the natural water divides between river basins, and in still others the boundary consists of straight lines between prominent topographic features. The approximate distances for each of these subdivisions of the line are as follows:

	<i>Kilometers Miles</i>	
Water courses.....	60	37
Water divides.....	60	37
Straight line sections.....	140	87



Courtesy of the Technical Commission for the Demarcation of the Boundary Line between Guatemala and Honduras.

ENGINEERS' CAMP
IN SOUTHERN
SECTION.



TOWER AND OBSERVING
PLATFORM, ES-
KIMO TRIANGULA-
TION STATION.

Courtesy of the Technical Commission.

The majority of the southwestern 100 kilometers (62 miles) of the line passes through fairly well settled country, where numerous trails give direct access to the boundary. The northern 160 kilometers (100 miles) of the line run through thinly settled country, which is timbered with heavy tropical growth and is in many areas absolutely uninhabited. Trails in the majority of this section are few and poor and become impassable in the rainy season.

A supplemental Convention to the Treaty of 1930 authorized the formation of a Technical Commission for the demarcation of the boundary line. This commission is made up of five engineers, Lisandro Sandoval and Florencio Santiso representing the Republic of Guatemala, and José Padilla and Ramón López Recinos representing the Republic of Honduras, with the writer appointed as a neutral head by the President of the Tribunal. Each Government was authorized to appoint such auxiliary engineers as would be necessary for the field engineering work. The Technical Commission is charged with the identification of the controlling points of the boundary as described in the award; the surveying of the boundary line and the determination of the geographic coordinates of all of its important points; and the building of permanent monuments at all road, trail and river crossings and on all important summits along the line.

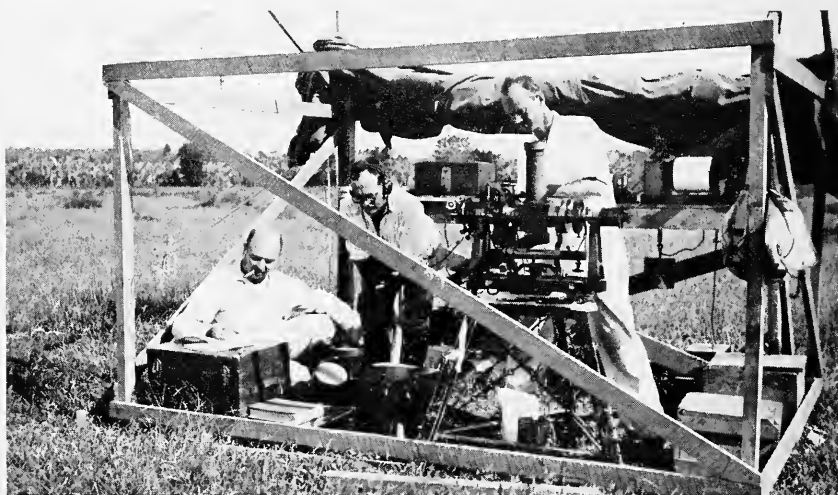
The field work of the commission has been going on since May 1933 and is now practically completed. The auxiliary personnel of the commission during its most active period consisted of 18 engineers and 2 doctors. It can be said without hesitation that the aerial photographs and maps from which the boundary line was selected and described have saved one or more years of field engineering work, in that each controlling angle point of the line could be quickly and accurately identified. In addition, the stereoscopic study of the aerial photographs in advance of the field work gave accurate information on the character of the terrain, thus permitting future work to be planned in detail. Then too, the line was described in such detail from the photographs and maps as to permit the field work to be carried on simultaneously in different sections, thereby reducing the total time required to complete it. The aerial photographs also permitted the accurate mapping of the frontier zone at a very nominal cost.

The program adopted by the Technical Commission in April 1933 divided the technical work into three main divisions: field engineering, monument building, and office work in calculations and drafting.

FIELD ENGINEERING

The field engineering work of the commission included a system of precise triangulation² throughout the entire boundary zone; the measurement of the entire boundary line with transit and stadia; the opening of a vista along the sections of the line that are not marked by water courses; the installation of tide and river gauges; and the running of some 70 kilometers (43 miles) of levels.

The reconnaissance for the triangulation was performed by the auxiliary engineers of the commission. This work started in November 1933 and required some 14 months to complete, owing to the character of the terrain, the heavy jungle growth in many sections, and the difficulties in transportation during the rainy season. This



Courtesy of the Technical Commission.

ESKIMO ASTRONOMIC STATION.

In the group are Ramón López R. and José A. Padilla, Honduran Commissioners, and Lt. J. P. Lushene of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey.

season, lasting from June to December, made field work very arduous, in that clouds and fog settled on the mountain tops for days at a time and many of the mountain trails became impassable.

The observing work on precise triangulation is necessarily a specialists' job, requiring expert observers and expensive equipment. The Technical Commission was particularly fortunate in obtaining the cooperation of the U. S. Coast and Geodetic Survey. This organization lent all the special equipment necessary for night observing and astronomic work, detailing Lieut. Joseph P. Lushene, an expert geodetic and astronomic engineer, and Mr. Philip A. Welker, an expert geodetic engineer and computer, for the observing work.

² Cf. "The Use of Triangulation in Boundary Surveys" by William Bowie, pp. 694-699.

Observing started on January 20, 1935, and was completed in six months, including the establishment of two astronomic stations with La Place azimuths and the measurement of the southern base line. Two instrument parties were used on the observing, working simultaneously on the opposite sides of the string of quadrilaterals. This plan was adopted in order to complete all field work during the unusually short observing season common to these countries. Thirty precise stations were occupied, and some 33 secondary positions at close intervals along the actual boundary line were located by intersections from the main scheme stations. Very difficult field conditions were encountered throughout the work; at the majority of stations 10 or more days were required to complete the necessary observations, owing to bad weather.

Office calculations and the Least Square adjustments will not be completed until after this article has been published. However, the accuracy of the work is indicated by some of the field computations:

Triangle closures in 48 triangles:

Average closure.....	0.90 seconds
Maximum closure.....	2.73 do.

Southern base measurement:

Probable error in measurement.....	1 in 1,400,000
Probable error in La Place azimuth.....	0.23 seconds

Northern base measurement:

Probable error in measurement.....	1 in 640,000
Probable error in La Place azimuth.....	0.26 seconds

(Note.—This base will be remeasured in order to reduce the P. E. within limits for precise work, which is 1 in 1,000,000.)

Longitude determination:

Probable error at northern base.....	0.006 seconds
Probable error at southern base.....	0.002 do.

Latitude determination:

Precise latitude observations have been made at both bases in accordance with the Coast Survey standards. The computed results for the P. E. are not available at this date.

Two engineering parties were employed in the measurement of the boundary line during the short field season of three months in 1933, and four engineering parties during the past two full field seasons. The length of the field season for this class of work was usually from November to the following July. Two engineers, one from each country, were assigned to each transit party, and both participated equally in all of the technical work. Each engineer made a record of his own measurements and was required to compare results with his colleague before leaving any instrument station. Certain limits of error between the individual measurements were allowed for each class of measurements, and if the comparison of the results failed to come within these limits, the measurements in question were repeated by both engineers. The average of the two results was accepted as the final value of the measurement.

Straight line sections of the boundary were projected by double centering the forward station. The angle traverse along the stream courses and divides was run by double deflection observations at each transit station, with fore and back sight stadia readings for distance. Vertical angle elevations were carried throughout the work along the line. Solar observations were taken at certain intervals and the traverse azimuths were adjusted to the mean values of these observations. The transit traverse work was performed with Model 5076F Kueffel & Esser transits, reading to 30 seconds on the horizontal limb and to 1 minute on the vertical limb. The vertical arc was provided with a control bubble and circular bubbles were attached to each stadia rod, in order to reduce errors in stadia measurements due to the inclination of the rod. Stadia readings for distances up to 300 meters (984 feet) were permitted.

Each engineer was required to make a sketch of the topographic details along the line, form contours being used to indicate the features and direction of the drainage. These sketches were used to select the locations for the boundary monuments and to supplement the map data.

A vista of from 10 to 30 meters (33 to 99 feet) wide, depending on the character of the timber, was cut along the majority of the boundary, with the exception of those sections marked by water courses. Aerial photographs taken in 1935 show the value of this vista in marking the boundary line. However, the fast growing jungle will obliterate this vista in a few years' time, unless the two Governments arrange for the clearing of the line at regular intervals.

It was found necessary to suspend the field work of measuring the line during the worst of the rainy season, usually from July to November. In most of the southern section, field conditions were relatively easy because of the many trails and several large settlements within easy riding distance of the boundary. In the northern section serious transportation problems were encountered, due to the lack of trails and the roughness of the terrain. In many areas it was necessary to construct new trails and to pack all supplies and equipment into the line on the backs of the workmen. Progress data indicate that it required nine and a half days to open the vista and measure each kilometer of line.

MONUMENT BUILDING

Four different types of boundary monuments were adopted by the commission. Types 1, 2 and 3 are similar in form but vary in size. They are built of concrete, using a 1:2:4 mixture, with a half-inch round iron vertical reinforcement in the towers. Type 1 is 1.2 meters (3.9 feet) high (above ground) with base a meter (3.28 feet)

square and a foundation from three-quarters to one meter (2.46 to 3.28 feet) deep. Type 2 is 0.7 meters (2.3 feet) high, with the same base and foundation as above. Both of these types of monuments require an average of 500 pounds of cement per monument. Type 3 is a special monument approximately 3.6 meters (11.8 feet) high and is made in the same form as the above-mentioned ones, with correspondingly enlarged dimensions in the base and foundations. The fourth type of monument, consisting of a 20 cm (7.87 inch)

BOUNDARY VISTA
ALONG A WATER
DIVIDE.



Courtesy of the Technical Commission.

square pier set 0.5 meter (1.64 feet) in the ground and extending above the surface 15 cm (5.9 inches), is used in marking the minor points along the line. A 5 cm (1.96 inch) square topped bronze pin, with long shank imbedded in the concrete, is set in the top of each monument. A cross denoting the position of the station and the number of the monument is stamped on this bronze pin. Collapsible metal moulds of one-eighth-inch sheet iron were made for pouring the first two types of monument. These metal forms are bolted

together and, when taken apart, can be transported on mule or man back. Sections of the slanting sides of the base can be removed without disturbing the monument. Baffles on the inner side of these slanting sections leave an oblong hole in the concrete monument. After the monument has set sufficiently, these holes are filled with neat cement, and metal plaques with reverse lettering are used to stamp the names of the countries and other information into the monument.

Along the straight sections of the boundary, monuments were built on all important topographic features and at all trail and large stream crossings, irrespective of the distance between points. In the broken sections of the line following the water divides, monuments were constructed at nearly every transit station. The majority of



Courtesy of the Technical Commission.

BOUNDARY MONUMENT, TYPE NO. 1.

Left: The metal mold for the monument. Right: Completed monument, 3.9 feet high.

the stations along these water divides are marked with the type 4 monument, the larger monuments being located only on the higher peaks and at trail crossings. In the sections of the line which follow water courses, reference monuments were placed on the stream banks at trail crossings and at junctions of important streams.

The greatest difficulty encountered in monument building was the transportation of materials. Cement was delivered to the nearest railroad station and it required from one to three days to pack it by mules into the nearest settlement along the boundary, where it was temporarily stored until needed in construction work. Cement was furnished in 100-pound paper sacks with a jute covering sack, which prevented serious loss in pack transportation. In many instances it was necessary to pack sand, rock and water by mules or men for distances up to 10 kilometers (6.21 miles).

Monument building started in April 1934 and was continued until September of that year, when work was suspended on account of the heavy rains. Work was resumed again in 1934 and is still being carried on. On June 30, 1935, the commission had built 169 of the larger monuments and 629 of the smaller type 4 monuments, a total of 798. It is estimated that there are approximately 160 more to be built along the line and it is expected that all work of this class will be completed by next February.

DRAFTING AND CALCULATIONS

The Technical Commission proposes to publish a series of 1:25,000 scale maps of the region along the boundary line. These maps will be developed from the aerial photographs taken in 1932 and from the transit traverse work along the line. They will be laid out in quadrangles of 6 by 8 minutes of latitude and longitude and photolithographed in three colors. Thirteen of them will cover the entire boundary to an average distance of 10 kilometers on each side of the line. The maps will be controlled by the traverse and triangulation work of the commission and will be carefully compiled by radial line plotting. All drainage and cultural details will be shown in blue and black respectively, with the frontier line in red. Contours will not be used, but the elevations of important topographic features, as determined by vertical angle levels, will be printed on them. In addition, the 1:100,000 Award Maps, published in December 1932, will be recompiled on more accurate control data than were available during the hurried survey of that date. Auxiliary maps showing indexes, triangulation layout and monument positions will also be included.

CONCLUSION

The engineering work on this survey has been maintained at relatively high standards for several reasons. Both Governments are contemplating other international boundary surveys in the near future and the training their respective engineers are now receiving will be of great value in this work. It is also hoped that other nations will profit in their boundary settlements by the present example of amicable arbitration and high standards of demarcation. It is important to realize the value of aerial photographic mapping in such work. In the present survey the aerial photographs not only have proved their worth to the tribunal in its work of selecting and describing the boundary line, but also have been of great value during the field engineering work of demarcation.

Another important reason for high accuracy in the basic control work is that the present system of precise triangulation is the first work of this character in Central America. The arc of the present

system, extending as it does more than two-thirds of the distance from ocean to ocean, affords an ideal base for future extension of first order control into each Republic. Furthermore, it is hoped that at some time in the future this work can be connected with the precise net of triangulation in Mexico and that it also can be expanded southwards to Panama and Colombia, thus giving a common geographic datum to all Central America and the Isthmus.

A development of this nature in the present work has been the participation of the Republic of El Salvador in the determination of the common boundary point of this Republic with Guatemala and Honduras. A new aerial survey of the area in the vicinity of the



Courtesy of the Technical Commission.

FLOOD GAGE ON THE MOTAGUA RIVER.

common corner was made in January and February 1935. The U. S. Army Air Corps again cooperated in this survey by performing the aerial photographic work and detailing from the 12th Photo Section Capt. W. R. Taylor as pilot and Sgt. Geo. W. Edwards as photographer. A 1:25,000 scale map covering some 250 square miles was prepared by the Technical Commission from the aerial photographs and the engineering representatives of the three Republics were able to reach an accord on the position of the common corner with relative ease. The map afforded precise knowledge of the terrain and the outlines of the respective titles of land ownership were easily plotted on the map. Not only was the position of the common corner determined and accepted, but also some 11 kilometers (7 miles) of the boundary of El Salvador, part with Guatemala and part with Honduras, were accepted by the joint engineering commission, subject to ratification by the respective Governments.

In addition, the Republics of Guatemala and El Salvador have started negotiations for the adjustment of their common boundary line. In order to provide an accurate base map on which the boundary can be defined with justice to each country, these two Republics agreed to make an aerial survey map of the entire boundary zone, extending from the common corner with Honduras westward to the Pacific Ocean, a distance of approximately 130 kilometers (80 miles). This survey was made with the cooperation of the U. S. Army Air Corps at the same time as the above mentioned work in January and February 1935. It is proposed to extend adequate precise triangulation control from the present system along the Guatemala-Honduras boundary, and to compile the maps by the same method that is being used on the present work.

In conclusion, the writer wishes to thank the various departments of the United States Government for their excellent cooperation in the present work. He also wishes to thank the Governments of Guatemala, Honduras and El Salvador for their very willing assistance in solving the many problems, both technical and financial, encountered on this work. The personnel of the Technical Commission has been of the highest grade and the success of the entire work is due to the fine spirit of cooperation displayed between the engineers of the two Governments.



THE FIRST CHILEAN STUDENTS IN THE UNITED STATES (1815-19)¹

By Dr. EUGENIO PEREIRA SALAS

Professor in the Pedagogical Institute, University of Chile

EACH age entrusts to education the task of producing the type of man it needs. In the early struggle for independence South America needed military men. The idea of liberty was already generally accepted, thanks to the intellectual foundations laid by the cultured champions of independence. The leaders had introduced these ideas to the people in general, imbuing them with an ardent patriotism. But the triumph of that cause still had to be accomplished on the battlefield. Hence the need for soldiers, that is, of military experts, leaders for whom strategy and the handling of troops should be a matter not of intuition but of science. South American eyes were, therefore, fixed on the great nations. After peace had been restored in Europe with the end of the Napoleonic era, many illustrious officers, attracted by the nobleness of the cause or impelled by a spirit of adventure, came to our shores. But it was also important for our men to go abroad so that, from the instruction there offered, they might gain the necessary knowledge.

The course of the revolution in Chile turned our national thought toward the United States. The vivid example of its recent struggles for liberty was an inspiration to our early writers; the work of Joel R. Poinsett raised the hope of possible American intervention on our behalf; and the sympathies awakened among us by the gallant figure of Capt. David Porter did the rest. Historical events facilitated the arrival of the first Chilean students in the United States; the circumstances were so novelesque that it is of interest to recall them.

On March 28, 1814, the inhabitants of Valparaíso watched from the hills the homeric combat off Punta Gruesa between the American frigate *Essex*, under the command of Captain Porter, and the English vessels *Cherub* and *Phoebe*, which had been lying in wait to avenge the American's exploits during his cruise in the Pacific. Seldom has there been a bloodier combat. The *Essex*, shattered and riddled by shot, had to raise the white flag after two hours of the tragic engagement.

¹ The sources of this study are for the most part unpublished. The following material was consulted. Regarding the Blanco brothers: Jeremy Robinson, "Diary"; Samuel Hill, "Log-Book of the *Ophelia*", New York Public Library. For Valdés y Carrera, Vicuña Mackenna, "El Ostracismo de los Carrera"; letter of Porter to Monroe, Jan. 3, 1819, Library of Congress. Referring to Edwards: Hill Papers, Yale University; Henry Hill, "Incidents in Chile"; and Miguel Munizaga, "Don Jorge Edwards."

The many wounded were transferred to land, where the women of Valparaíso cared for them with generous solicitude. The homes of some of the most prominent citizens were converted into improvised hospitals, among them that of a wealthy merchant, Don Remigio Blanco. He had distinguished himself during the first period of independence by his love for the United States, and because of this Joel R. Poinsett had appointed him vice-consul in Valparaíso.

Blanco's generosity made a great impression on the gallant sailor and, to reciprocate the hospitality and the affection for his country displayed by the distinguished Chilean, Captain Porter took Blanco's two sons, Mateo and Luis (then about 18 years old), with him as midshipmen to be educated in the United States.

Unfortunately the Military Academy at West Point was closed to foreigners, especially to individuals from that far-away other America whose national status was temporarily hybrid, the requirements of international law by which they could claim a country, a government, and a flag being still unfulfilled. (The battles of Chacabuco and Maipo were still in the future, and the Chileans had before them the cruel hours of reconquest.) But the valiant Porter refused to recognize any difficulties. Taking advantage of the current interest in our cause and the growing popular enthusiasm for it, he approached President Madison himself for the necessary permission. While the authorization was being secured, Luis and Mateo Blanco began their studies in the United States as students in the Yorktown School. In 1816 they were enrolled in the Military Academy at West Point; to them belongs the honor of being the first foreign students in that famous institution.

The Blanco brothers were not model pupils. They had been accustomed to the turbulent life of Chile in the struggle for independence, a rough free life full of daily excitement; far from home, with a scanty knowledge of the language, they could not adapt themselves to the strictness of the academic life of that period. Clashes were continuous and the school authorities even went so far as to complain to the President of the United States and ask that the boys be expelled. Through the influence of the President himself, they were kept as students simply because, according to a contemporary, they were South American patriots and at that time interest in Hispano-American affairs was intense.

Meanwhile, Don Remigio Blanco had been arrested in Chile after the battle of Rancagua, which delivered the country into the hands of the Spaniards, and as a penalty for his support of the patriotic cause and his friendship with North Americans he was exiled to the prison at Juan Fernández. Only the mother, Doña Petita Ramírez, was left to care for her sons' interests, and she scrupulously carried

out the arrangements made with Captain Porter. In spite of her feminine grumbings, she religiously sent the money for the tuition and maintenance of the two lads, a matter of some \$600 a year.

The career of the Blancos at West Point was short and incomplete. In April 1818 we find them back in Chile in the employ of Lynch, Hill & Co. This firm—composed of Estanislao Lynch, a young man from Buenos Aires, and Henry Hill, a North American—included among its activities the equipping of privateers for the obstruction of Spanish maritime commerce. The boys remained in that office until Hill's return to the United States. The triumph of the liberating army in Peru drew them to that country, and all later trace of them has been lost.

The voyage of the Blanco brothers was not unique or isolated; their return to Chile coincided with the departure of another student whom the political fates transplanted to the then classic Land of Liberty.

In 1816 Gen. José M. Carrera, ex-President of Chile, had visited the United States for the purpose of obtaining stores and ships for a glorious but ill-starred expedition; there his bearing, his ability, and his personality aroused enthusiasm among the Americans. His patriotic proclamations had rallied to his cause various people attached to our country by bonds of affectionate gratitude. Conspicuous among these were former consul Poinsett and the magnificent Captain Porter, and even students at West Point offered to join the dangerous enterprise. The memory of Carrera has been perpetuated in the friendship of these men for him.

Some time later Commodore Saint Clair, commander of the frigate *Congress*—which carried the commission charged with informing the Congress of the United States about conditions in the recently constituted South American nations—met General Carrera in Montevideo where, a fugitive from Buenos Aires, he was persecuted like a wild animal by his implacable enemies. The Commodore, moved by the other's misfortunes, generously offered to take a nephew of the General's to the United States and educate him there. That was how Don Pedro Valdés y Carrera happened to be installed in Philadelphia, under the protection of Mr. John H. Mifflin, at the end of 1818. The young man was faced with the same difficulties that had arisen in connection with the Blanco brothers. But Captain Porter, as indefatigable as ever, once more gave proof of his affection for us and ours. In an eloquent letter² dated January 3, 1819, he asked the President of the United States to give Carrera's nephew the same opportunities that had been granted to the Blancos:

² Now in the Manuscript Division of the Library of Congress, Washington, D. C., with other Monroe correspondence.—EDITOR.

You have heard of that persecuted family of Chillian patriots the Carreras . . . Only one of the brothers now lives Joseph Miguel de Carrera the former President of Chilli who I once had the honor to present to you. . . .

A nephew of this gentleman has reached the United States—he is a youth remarkable for his intelligence.—

The calamities brought on that family by their enemies occasioned great alarms in their minds for the safety of the one most likely to succeed Joseph Miguel de Carrera in his honorable career; and from the interest which I have heretofore taken in the welfare of Chili, as well as from the claims which as an officer of the American Government they have on me for the hospitable reception given to my command while Carrera was President they consigned this youth to me “that he may (in the language of his mother) have sown on his tender mind, those seeds of honor, science, politics and war, that may render him the pride of his country, the dispenser of her justice or protector of her rights.”

I enclose to you the letters which I have received from his uncle, his mother & his friends respecting this interesting youth; and take the liberty to suggest the vast political importance which may result from an education calculated to instill into his mind a knowledge of our institutions and the purest republican principles.— The experiment was made on two young men who came from Chilli with me— It did not succeed agreeably to my wishes, but they carried with them to their country the seeds of military science which may hereafter be useful— In this case there is the best hopes of success, and the same reasons which induced the former President to provide for them may be urged in favor of him.— The debt of gratitude is a National debt, and for the payment of which the nation will receive all the advantages.— May I beg therefore that the Nation will take on itself the responsibility of his education by admitting him as a cadet into the Military Academy at West-Point as the place most likely to effect the object of his visit to this country.

Valdés y Carrera did not enter West Point, but was allowed to enter the Navy for training (the Naval Academy at Annapolis had not yet been established). He remained several years in the Navy, where he won the commission of lieutenant.

In 1833, on leave in Chile, he went to the family estate at San Miguel. Commander Downes offered him a commission on the *Falmouth*, but the precarious state of his health obliged him to resign from the United States Navy. After he had recovered, he entered the Chilean Navy, where he rose to high rank.

The last of the Chilean students of that period went to the United States not for a military education, but for the commercial training and experience then so greatly needed if the economic resources of our land were to be developed. His visit was a result of the activities in Chile of the United States vice consul in Valparaíso. This was the Henry Hill to whom reference has already been made, and who had come to our shores as supercargo aboard the *Savage*, one of the vessels in Carrera's fleet. In Coquimbo, Hill had become a friend of Don Jorge Edwards, the founder of the large and distinguished Chilean family of that name. In a privately printed pamphlet of reminiscences

written nearly 70 years later, Hill said, "His oldest son, Joaquín, he [Don Jorge] intended to send to England for a mercantile education; but after we became acquainted he changed his mind and sent him to this country [the United States] in the *Savage*." The boy traveled under the care of Captain Perry, who delivered him to a friend of Hill's living outside New York. Joaquín Edwards began his studies in the local school and continued them in New Haven. "Afterwards", Hill wrote, "he was in my family in Boston, and in the counting-room of Baker & Hodges. From funds of Dr. Edwards, I paid those gentlemen at the rate of two hundred dollars a year for the privilege Joaquín had of being in their counting-room, which was one of the first of Boston."

After remaining eight years in the United States, Joaquín Edwards returned to La Serena with a thorough knowledge of business principles and practice and a perfect command of English. Among his many distinguished descendents are His Excellency Don Emilio Edwards Bello, the present Minister of Chile in Cuba, and the latter's brother Joaquín, the great Chilean writer.

Such were the distant origins of educational intercourse between Chile and the United States which, as years have passed, has proved to be one of the most adequate and effective means for the mutual understanding and reciprocal esteem of these two nations of our great America.²

² In 1933-34 the author held a Guggenheim fellowship in the United States for the study of early commercial relationships between this country and Chile.—EDITOR.



CAPT. DAVID PORTER.

THE BOLÍVAR ANNIVERSARY

THE 152nd anniversary of the birth of Simón Bolívar, the Liberator, was commemorated on July 24 by special ceremonies in Washington and New York.

The Minister of Panama, Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, the Minister of Bolivia, Dr. Enrique Finot, and the consular officers of the Bolivarian Republics in New York were the guests of honor at the luncheon given by the Pan American Society in that city. At the close of the luncheon the guests proceeded to the statue of Bolívar in Central Park, where they were joined by many members of the Latin American colony in the metropolis. It will be remembered that this statue was the gift of Venezuela to the City of New York.

Mr. John L. Merrill, president of the Pan American Society, presided at the ceremonies of homage to the great South American patriot, soldier, and statesman and made a brief address. The consul general of Colombia, Señor Don Gabriel Garcés, spoke on behalf of the Bolivarian consular corps, praising the ideals of Bolívar.

To the inspiring music of the national anthems of Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Panama and the United States, played by the 18th United States Infantry Band, the flags of those countries were presented.

As a final tribute to the hero, wreaths were deposited at the foot of the statue by representatives of the Pan American Society, the Bolivarian Consuls General, the Colombian-American Chamber of Commerce, the Ecuadorean-American Association, the Peruvian-American Association, the Liga Internacional de Acción Bolivariana, and the Pan American Student League.

At 3:30 in the afternoon (E. S. T.) a special radio program was sent from Washington over the blue network of the National Broadcasting Company. The tributes to Bolívar, delivered by diplomatic representatives of the six nations liberated by the sword of this great hero, were rebroadcast by short wave from Station W2XAF in Schenectady. The addresses, in the order in which they were given, were as follows:

VENEZUELA

The name of Bolívar has become the symbol and standard of Pan Americanism through the justice and the gratitude of successive generations.

The Liberator, anticipating the march of time, perceived the future of America. He realized the fundamental unity of our Continent, both physically, on account of its geographical position, and ethically, because all the nations inhabiting it were then, as they are more strongly every day, moved by the sense of their own independence and respect for that of their neighbor.



Courtesy of the Pan American Society.

THE BOLÍVAR STATUE IN CENTRAL PARK, NEW YORK CITY.

The 152d anniversary of Bolívar's birth, July 24, was commemorated by ceremonies under the auspices of the Pan American Society of the United States.

On that foundation Bolívar based his doctrine of cooperation between American nations for their common defense and for the solution, by juridical procedure, of controversies which might arise among them.

There is no conflict between that ideal and the Monroe Doctrine. The latter is a unilateral statement of the obligation which the United States voluntarily assumed not to tolerate any attack against the independence of the American nations. But Bolívar's comprehensive doctrine has the same intent, and therefore the Monroe Doctrine can be merged with it, as in a single mighty river are merged the waters of its several tributaries.

I send greetings on this glorious day to the citizens of the entire continent.

PEDRO MANUEL ARCAYA,
Minister of Venezuela in the United States

PANAMA

The life of Bolívar was one of constant contrast. Perhaps in that fact lies the remarkable power of his greatness.

The life of the Liberator is full of those singular contradictions through which he was to realize his transcendental human achievement in spite of surroundings and circumstances. He was born an aristocrat and was a founder and champion of democracy. He was brought up in affluence and died almost in misery. The master and lord of slaves, he made the abolition of slavery the keynote of his policies. His career was crowned by the most brilliant success which the sword of a soldier could achieve, and yet his reverses outnumbered his victories. He was most to be feared in defeat; he was greatest in adversity; the triumph of his

arms was most evident in the tragic hours of Casacoima and Pativilca. He was a magnanimous man, yet his hand signed without trembling the terrible decree of war to the death. The demands of critical moments led him to imprison famous leaders when he believed the life of the Republic to be threatened, but he pardoned conspirators even after seeing his own life in jeopardy. In a moment of discouragement he was convinced that he had only ploughed the sea; but the seed which he sowed grew later into the robust tree from whose trunk sprang six vigorous free nations. At another time he believed he had failed, when he tried to convert into reality his beautiful dream of American federation, with his Corinth on the Isthmus of Panama; but in that apparent failure lay hidden the germ of continental solidarity and the most vital principles of the international commonwealth. He courted death on a hundred battlefields and bullets spared him. He resisted the rigors of fifteen years of campaigns, but succumbed before the deceits, the disillusionments, and the blows of human maliciousness.

When Bolívar closed the stupendous drama of his life at San Pedro Alejandrino, there appeared in history a figure of granite, shaped by a cyclopean chisel. His virtues, coupled with his defects; his achievements, together with his errors; his enormous successes, reached after crushing disasters; his dictatorial acts and his incomparable epic of emancipation: this whole aggregate of violent contrasts, of light and of shade, of horror and of glory, of destruction and of creation, of death and of life, is necessary to give the superhuman dimensions of the colossus: just as to appreciate the grandeur of a mountain one must start at its base, climb over its crags, shudder at its black abysses, follow paths along frightful precipices and abrupt cliffs, until one reaches the serene atmosphere of the summit which, silhouetted against the heavens and caressed by the sun, appears to the wondering eyes of mankind as an eternal symbol of glory and of might.

RICARDO J. ALFARO,

Minister of Panama in the United States.

COLOMBIA

I think we should all be thankful to the National Broadcasting Company for their happy thought of organizing this tribute of respect and admiration to one of the greatest men of modern times, for it enhances the possibilities of closer international cooperation through a better acquaintance with the men, facts and ideals that have constituted the foundation and development of the American Republics.

I believe that we all agree that a lasting and enjoyable cooperation cannot be based on material interests alone and that the completion of the necessary requisites must be accomplished through knowledge and understanding. The basis for this is history and it is only natural that in this stage in which our knowledge of each other is, to say the least, superficial, the leaders or guiding spirits of our countries should be the object of immediate interest and study. Of these Bolívar is unquestionably one of the outstanding figures of American history and in these our times of social and political readjustment, we shall do well in giving our thoughts to a man who lived his day as intensely as any great soldier has ever lived, but whose mind was permanently fixed on the future with a breadth and loftiness of ideals that emulate our greatest present day ambitions of social justice and international amity and cooperation. This outstanding genial characteristic of achieving the utmost and planning the wisest for human, political and social endeavor will undoubtedly be one of the greatest sources of inspiration for inter-American friendship and continental prosperity.

MIGUEL LÓPEZ PUMAREJO,

Minister of Colombia in the United States.

ECUADOR

The glorious anniversary which we commemorate today is of great significance not only for the nations which owe their existence to the invincible sword of the Liberator, but for all Hispanic America and, I make bold to say, for humanity itself, because the Liberator consecrated the heroic epic of his life to the triumph of those generous ideals of justice and liberty which are not the heritage of one nation or a group of nations, but which have been identified with the history of progress.

For its devotion to the memory of the Liberator, the Republic of Ecuador has earned the distinctive title "preeminent in loyalty", because it followed him with unswerving devotion both in the brilliant days of his glory and in the days of his misfortune and bitterness. Therefore on this day Ecuador pronounces the name of the noble and great-hearted hero with the enthusiasm with which a nation hails the symbol of its destiny.

The glory of Bolívar extends as far and as wide as the horizon of the centuries; it is a summons for the union of the nations of America, which are the stars in his diadem. His statesmanlike vision, his policy of continental amity, forecast the time when nations should respect each other, and laid the foundation for cooperation between those nations which in the past had imbibed the same traditions of nobility and of valor and which for the purposes of history are ever more closely intertwined in fulfillment of a common aspiration.

MANUEL CABEZA DE VACA,
Chargé d'Affaires of Ecuador.

PERU

I deeply appreciate the honor of this invitation to say a few words on Simón Bolívar. It is not necessary for me to speak here about his life, nor do I feel authorized to discourse on so great a man, but if admiration may partly compensate for my deficiencies, I shall have rendered one tribute more to the memory of Simón Bolívar, Liberator of Nations.

The historic moment in which he lived made of Bolívar an Envoy of Destiny. Bolívar was more than a man; he was a force, a symbol, a banner of Liberty that floated over the Andes. Like Napoleon and Caesar, he fought and won; but unlike Napoleon and Caesar, he fought not to conquer but to emancipate. There is no praise too high for men who, like Bolívar and San Martín, sacrificed their lives for the sake of Liberty; emissaries of Providence, or just Supermen, they have won the unfailing admiration of the World and the eternal gratitude of the countries they liberated.

Like every genius, Bolívar was cruel with himself. He exhausted his patrimony; he destroyed his health in crossing the lofty Andes; he made unattainable the love of his life; there was no force capable of halting the victorious march of the great Venezuelan. Triumphant one day, defeated the next, he was like a torrent that carried all before it; untiring, invincible, perhaps because he himself could not escape his own heroic destiny.

He created nations; he organized them; and when his great task was fulfilled, he surrendered to death, thus making human a Life immortal, dedicated to the noblest and most glorious of earthly undertakings: Liberty!

JUAN IGNACIO ELGUERA,
First Secretary of the Peruvian Embassy in the United States.

BOLIVIA

The Bolivarian ideal of international peace and cooperation should be the best foundation for all movements for American union and brotherhood. Indeed, I believe it is just in such a moment of uncertainty and bewilderment as we are now experiencing, when the advances which have been made with so much difficulty in the organization of peace run the risk of being nullified, that it is especially needful to inculcate in all men's spirits, and especially in the soul of new generations, the lofty conception of the Liberator. For his ideas had the virtue of arousing a whole world by making it aware of its common destiny.

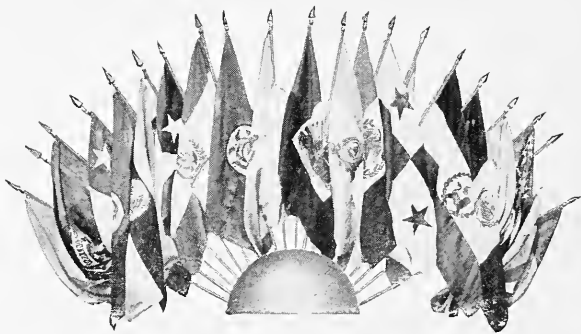
If the partial breakdown of peace organizations proves, not that they are futile, but that they are still imperfect, it is logical to think that only the development of an appreciation of the processes of law will succeed in creating in the world the degree of moral evolution that is the indispensable foundation for the kingdom of justice and of peace. And in that noble undertaking there is nothing so useful, so profitable, and so surely inspired, as the achievement which tends to spread not only a knowledge of the magnetic personality of the Hero, but also a knowledge of those principles and doctrines embodied in the system of cooperation which was ever his ideal and which continues to be, throughout America, the desideratum of happiness and of union.

ENRIQUE FINOT,

Minister of Bolivia in the United States.

The final celebration of the day was the program of the Liga Internacional de Acción Bolivariana, presented at the Roerich Museum in New York and likewise heard by radio listeners in the United States and Latin America. On this occasion the Minister Resident of Costa Rica in the United States, Señor Don Manuel González Zeledón, read a poem which he had written in homage to the Liberator.





PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

New books.—The Library of the School of Economics, Business, and Political Science of the Universidad Nacional del Litoral, of Rosario de Santa Fé, Argentina, celebrated on April 30 its twenty-fifth anniversary as a national public library. On that occasion, the Library published an interesting volume, giving the history of the institution from its beginnings in 1905. Photographs, statistical tables, and legislation affecting the Library supplement the descriptive parts, thus giving its complete history.

Among other books received since last month are the following:

Obras completas de Joaquín V. González. Edición ordenada por el Congreso de la Nación Argentina . . . Buenos Aires [Imprenta Mercatali] 1935. 4 v. front. (v. 1, port.), pl. (v. 1, facsim.) 24 cm. [This handsome edition of the complete works of González was authorized by law of June 22, 1934. The National University of La Plata is in full charge of the compilation and publication of his works, which will include all those previously inedited as well as those already published. The complete works of González comprise 51 titles. These, the first four volumes, include a long prologue by Dr. Ricardo Levene; *La Revolución* (1885); *Proyecto de constitución para la provincia de La Rioja* (1887); *Manual de la constitución argentina* (1897); *Legislación de minas* (1900); *La propiedad de las minas—estudios legales y constitucionales* (1913-15); and other shorter studies.]

Menores abandonados y delincuentes; legislación e instituciones en Europa y América, [por el] Dr. Carlos de Arenaza . . . Buenos Aires, Librería y editorial "La Facultad", Juan Roldán y cía., 1934. t. III: 504 p. illus. 27 cm. [Volumes I and II of this work, published in 1929 and 1931 respectively, contained material on 10 European countries. The present volume considers child welfare movements in the United States (with special reference to Puerto Rico), Mexico, Cuba, Haiti, the Dominican Republic, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, and El Salvador. A fourth and last volume will deal with the South American Republics. The author has devoted much time to and written several books on social questions in general and juvenile delinquency in particular.

Leyes sobre bancos y moneda [compilados por el] Ministerio de hacienda de la nación. Buenos Aires, Imp. Luis L. Gotelli, 1935. 5 p. l., [3]–123 p. 24 cm. [This volume includes the six laws passed early in 1935 on money and banking in Argentina, with the message of the President in the latter part of 1934 transmitting the measures.]

La Biblioteca [pública "Estanislao S. Zeballos"] de la Facultad de ciencias económicas, comerciales y políticas, de Rosario, al cumplir veinticinco años desde que el Poder Ejecutivo Nacional la declaró pública. 1910–30 de abril–1935. Santa Fe, Imprenta de la Universidad, 1935. 74 p. plates, ports., tab., diagr. 26 cm.

Memorias científicas [de] Peter Wilhelm Lund. Tradução do Dr. Leonidas Damasio . . . Bello Horizonte, Edições Apólo, 1935. vii, 286 p. pl. (port.) 24 cm. (Bibliotheca mineira de cultura, Volume N° 1.) [These reports were translated from the Danish by Dr. Damasio in 1900. They are now published on the occasion of the centenary of Lund's first studies in natural history made in Minas Gerães. Brazilian anthropology, paleontology and other sciences owe much to his long and arduous work during the early years of the Empire.]

O sabio Dr. Lund e estudos sobre a pre-historia brasileira [pelo prof.] Anibal Mattos . . . Prefacio do prof. Lopes Rodrigues . . . Bello Horizonte, Edições Apólo [1935] xxiv, 346, v, vii, iii p. plates, diagrs., maps. 24 cm. (Bibliotheca mineira de cultura, Volume N° 3.) Contents.—Vida e obra de Peter Wilhelm Lund—Ethnographia, Archeologia, Anthropologia, Antiguidade do homem no Brasil. [This is another volume published on the centenary of Lund's work in Brazil. Prof. Mattos discusses his life and works and includes numerous diagrams and maps showing the importance of his discoveries.]

Collectanea Peter Wilhelm Lund [organizada pelo prof.] Anibal Mattos . . . Bello Horizonte, Edições Apólo [1935] 268 p. plates, fold. tab., diagrs. fold. map. 24 cm. (Bibliotheca mineira de cultura, Volume N° 5.) [This collection includes some of the studies made by the Danish naturalist in the 1840's and more recent ones by subsequent scientists concerning the same region. A monument was erected to Dr. Lund in Minas Gerães in 1930, in recognition of his great work.]

O Rotary no Brasil e os problemas brasileiros [pelo prof.] Anibal Mattos . . . Bello Horizonte, Edições Apólo [1935] viii, 237, iii p. plates, ports. 24 cm. [The author describes the Rotary Club movement in Brazil since its inception, reviews the 1934 International Rotary Conference in Detroit, Michigan, and adds a compilation of the resolutions of the first five Brazilian Rotary Conferences, held in 1930–1934.]

Legislação florestal . . . por Paulo Ferreira de Souza . . . Rio de Janeiro, Diretoria de estatística da produção (Secção de publicidade), 1934. Pt. 1: 184 p., 1 l., xiii p. 23 cm. ([Publicação do] Ministério da agricultura, Departamento nacional de produção vegetal, Serviço de fomento da produção vegetal.) Contents.—Legislação histórica, 1789–1889. [The author states that he has been making this compilation of forestry laws for many years. The first volume covers the century before the establishment of the Republic. It includes all those laws, decisions, regulations and royal orders connected with forestry in Brazil, including excerpts from Portuguese legislation applicable to Brazil.]

Edwin Vernon Morgan, In memoriam. [Preparada e distribuida na] Associação dos artistas brasileiros e Circulo dos amigos das artes plásticas. [Rio de Janeiro, Leuzinger, S. A.] 1935. [30] p. plates, ports. 23½ x 19 cm. [Edwin Vernon Morgan's death in 1934 occasioned deep regret in all America and especially in Brazil, where shortly before he had completed 20 years of service as American Ambassador. The *Associação dos artistas brasileiros* and

the *Círculo dos amigos das artes plásticas* present herewith evidence of their respect for Mr. Morgan and his work.]

Segunda conferencia interamericana de educación . . . Santiago, República de Chile, septiembre, 1934. [Santiago de Chile, Imp. universitaria, 1935] t. II: 2 p. l., [vii]—xvi p., 1 l., 543 p. 25 cm. Contents.—Temas oficiales. [The topics on the agenda treated in this volume include character education, vocational education, primary and normal education, and miscellaneous matters. Some of the many educators who contributed papers to the conference are: M. Salas Marchán, Carmen Cuesta del Muro, Catalino Arrocha Graell, Graziela Barinaga y Ponce León, Amado J. Fernández, Ana Echegoyen de Cañizares, Diego González, Soledad de Alas, Francis W. Kirkham, John C. Wright, George Johnson, Samuel Zenteno Anaya, Eliseo Otaíza Mardones, Alfredo M. Aguayo, Thomas E. Benner, Enrique Cañas Flores, Santiago Peña y Lillo, Dario E. Salas, Gilda B. Carissimo, Armando Rojas Castro, Miguel R. Avila, Luciano Martínez Echemendía, María González, Teodoro Picado Michalsky, Harold Benjamin, H. J. Smith, J. Cayce Morrison, W. W. Charters, Tracy F. Tyler, Claudio Salas, Domingo Durán, Catherine Cook, Valentín Retamal, Dr. Eugenio Cienfuegos, Leo C. de Bray, Víctor Mercante, Hugo Lea Plaza, Roberto Verdaguer y García, Rogelio Muñoz Martínez, Waldo Stevenson, Adolfo Cienfuegos y Cármas, Elena Torres, and Rafael Ramírez.]

Anuario Ceb, comercio—industrias—profesiones, 1935. Primera edición . . . Santiago de Chile, Editores: Empresa de avisos C. A. Bofill [1935] 828, 291 p. 27 cm. [This is the first issue of a yearly guide which promises to be a complete directory to Chilean commerce and industry. It includes, in addition to the industrial firms of all the more important cities, a directory of public officials, a statistical summary of commerce and various industries, lists of credit institutions, stock companies, exporters, and daily and other periodicals, and the tariff as of December 24, 1934, with related laws as supplements.]

Mujeres de América, por Bernardo Uribe Muñoz . . . Medellín, Imp. oficial, 1934. xxi p., 1 l., 460, a-d p. illus. (ports.) 24 cm. [This compilation includes the biographies of some of the best known contemporary American women. The majority of the biographies were written by the subjects themselves, and in many cases photographs were furnished. The collection includes representatives of Argentina, Bolivia, Colombia, Cuba, Chile, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Paraguay, Peru, Puerto Rico, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Among these women are novelists, short-story writers, poets, journalists, teachers, lawyers, essayists, dramatists, a genealogist, a historian, a pianist, a physician, and an artist.]

Historia ferroviaria de Costa Rica [y] Galería del progreso nacional [por] Joaquín Fernández Montúfar. (San José, pref. 1934) 221 p., [4] l. incl. illus., plates, ports., diagrs. [260] plates, incl. ports. 25 cm. [This long history of Costa Rican railways gives the whole story of the Atlantic and the Pacific roads. The author continues with a discussion of ports and harbors on both coasts and a chapter on highway development, and concludes with two chapters discussing the development of agriculture in general and coffee in particular. The *Galería del progreso nacional* is a collection of 260 plates, each with a descriptive caption, showing the modern conditions prevailing throughout the Republic.]

Libro del centenario de Juan Santamaría, 1831–29 de agosto–1931, y algunas otras páginas cívicas de Alajuela; [publicación del] Instituto de Alajuela. . . San José, Imprenta nacional, 1934. 312 p. plates (incl. ports., fold. facsim.) 21 cm. [A collection of addresses delivered at the time of the Santamaría centenary in 1931 is here presented as a civic offering to the youth of Costa Rica. The second and third parts of the volume deal with Alajuela, the birthplace of the hero. They comprise a series of historical essays written at the time of the

one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the foundation of Alajuela and biographies of eleven illustrious citizens of that city.]

La novela en Cuba: sus manifestaciones, ideales y posibilidades; discurso leído por el Dr. Salvador Salazar, Presidente p. s. de la Academia nacional de artes y letras, en sesión solemne de apertura del curso de 1934 a 1935, celebrada el domingo 28 de octubre de 1934. . . . Habana, Imp. Molina y cía., 1934. 45 p. 25 cm. [This address, though brief, is an interesting historical and critical essay on the Cuban novel. It is followed by a short poem entitled *Misterio*, by Dulce María Borrero, read before the Academy on October 28, 1934, and the report of the secretary general of the Academy submitted at the beginning of the year 1931-32.]

Précis méthodique d'histoire d'Haïti; cinq siècles d'histoire—1492-1930, par le docteur François Dalencour. . . . Port-au-Prince, Chez l'auteur, 1935. 3 p. l., 208 p. 27 cm. [Dr. Dalencour defines history as "the account of events of all kinds which have taken place in the world or in a certain part of the world, and in which man has played the leading role. The history of Haiti is therefore the account of the events which have taken place in Haiti since the time of the earliest known inhabitants, i. e., the Indians, down to the present." He divides the history of Haiti into seven periods: the Indian era; the Spanish era; the era of adventures; the French era; the War of Independence—the heroic era; complete national independence; and the American-Haitian era.]

Recent periodical acquisitions.—New magazines or those received for the first time are listed below:

Corporación frutícola argentina, revista oficial. Buenos Aires, 1935. Año I, No 1, enero de 1935. 36 p. ports. 29x20 cm. Monthly. Editors: Comisión de prensa, Corporación frutícola argentina. Address: 441 Agüero, Primer piso, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Norte; periódico literario. Buenos Aires, 1935. Año I, No 1, 1º de abril de 1935. 4 p. 34½x25½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Fermín Estrella Gutiérrez. Address: Beauchef 245, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Monthly economic survey of Chile; [publication of the] Ministry of foreign affairs and commerce. Santiago de Chile, 1935. No 3, March, 1935. [16] p. tables. 27 x 19 cm. Address: La Moneda Palace, Santiago, Chile.

América española. Cartagena, 1935. Tomo I, No 1, mayo, 1935. 96 p. 25x17 cm. Editor: G. Porras Troconis. Address: Editorial América española, Cartagena, Colombia.

Revista de derecho (órgano de la Asociación de abogados de Santo Domingo). Santo Domingo, 1935. Año I, No 2, 15 de mayo de 1935. 30 p. 23½x16 cm. Monthly. Editor: Aníbal Sosa Ortiz. Address: Asociación de abogados de Santo Domingo, Santo Domingo, República Dominicana.

Revista musical Ariel. México, 1935. Año I, No 1, mayo de 1935. 28 p. illus. (ports.) 23x17 cm. Monthly. Editor: A. Domínguez Portas. Address: Prim 32-3 A, México, D. F., México.

Don Quijote; publicación del Club Miguel de Unamuno de la sección nocturna del College of the City of New York. New York, 1935. No. 4, junio-noviembre, 1935. 34 p. 31x23 cm. Half-yearly. Address: Box No. 101, College of the City of New York, Main Building—138th St. and Convent Avenue, New York, N. Y.

Unión; órgano oficial del capítulo Zeta de la fraternidad Fi Iota Alfa [asociación de estudiantes latinoamericanos] Nueva York, 1935. Año I, No 1, 30 de abril de 1935. 11 p. illus. 31x23 cm. Address: P. O. Box 55, Station, I New York, N. Y.

PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

PRESIDENTIAL MESSAGES

Paraguay.—After reporting to Congress in detail regarding Paraguay's position in the Chaco conflict (prior to the mediation and peace negotiations sponsored by other American nations), President Eusebio Ayala dealt with current economic and social problems in his message delivered on April 1, 1935. For instance, he scored the "false theory" which gives preference to foreign credit in financing the country's needs, suggesting a "rational organization of the domestic security market" and then said that for the maintenance of sound public finance it was essential to "systematize government expenditures, regulate the credit obligations of the State, faithfully keep up the public debt services, and seek current credit for the National Treasury". To carry out plans for a better control of expenditures, an appropriation was requested for expert aid in establishing a modern system of accountancy and supervision.

The population problem seems to be the cause of grave concern in Paraguay. One difficulty for which measures are soon to be taken is that arising from a large number of agricultural workers who, having no land of their own, "take no interest in their tasks, migrate often and trespass upon private property, to the detriment of national wealth, public order, and moral and physical health", the President said. The administration is also sponsoring a colonization program, with a sound immigration plan as its basis. The country would be prepared to assimilate new inhabitants, preferably farmers, giving them facilities for the acquisition of lands and helping them during the period of acclimation.

Peru.—In a radio address delivered on May 10 to the nation, President Oscar R. Benavides reviewed the accomplishments of his administration during the first two years of his term. He spoke of the close and cordial relations maintained with all nations of the world, stressing the "spiritual and material bonds with the peoples of America". Special mention was made of the Protocol of Friendship and Cooperation signed last year with Colombia; the efforts being made to reach a satisfactory solution of the boundary controversy with Ecuador; the prospective consideration by the Peruvian Congress of the commercial pact signed with Chile on March 17, 1934, and the similar treaties now under negotiation with Argentina and

Great Britain. The President reiterated the fraternal feeling of Peru toward Bolivia and Paraguay, the Government having exerted "at all times its friendly influence on behalf of peace" in the Chaco.

In the fiscal year ended April 30, 1935, there was an increase of 75 percent in the foreign trade, with a corresponding rise in customs revenues, over figures of the previous year. An appreciable increase was likewise recorded in the revenues from direct taxation; in bank deposits, as well as in the banks' available cash on hand, discount operations, loans, etc.; while "bank stock, mortgage bonds and government securities reached a level seldom attained" in the nation's history. The Government expressed the hope that all creditor nations would cooperate in an economic policy which would permit increased Peruvian exports, as a means of enabling the country "to meet the debts contracted abroad by preceding administrations, and which the Nation is pledged to pay". The Chief Executive dealt extensively with the policy pursued by the Government in connection with the monetary problem created by the rise in the price of silver, especially the suppression of hoarding and speculating. Moreover, instead of taking advantage of the situation to issue new fractional currency of very little intrinsic value, the administration placed the matter in the hands of the Central Reserve Bank to deal with it according to the provisions of its charter, "for the protection of the public interest and to assure a sound national currency."

President Benavides expressed great satisfaction at the progress attained in the field of public education. The greatest amount previously spent by the government on this item had been 7,500,000 soles, the sum appropriated in 1932. "In 1934", he said, "my Government spent 9,500,000 soles, which represents an increase of more than 25 percent, and I may add that this figure will be exceeded in the course of the current year." Since 1932, the record year for enrollment, also, the school population has increased by more than 20,000 pupils, giving work to approximately 2,000 teachers who had been unemployed. Regarding a plan of instruction, he suggested that all efforts be concentrated on perfecting elementary instruction, "giving it, above all, a national and utilitarian character, increasing the number of technical schools, and disseminating in all others a knowledge of agricultural and farm matters".

Argentina.—In his address to the Argentine Congress on May 15, marking the opening of the 72nd legislative session, President Agustín P. Justo reviewed the work accomplished during the first half of his term of office and expounded the policies to be pursued by his administration in order to consolidate the ground gained by the Republic in its fight against economic depression. The President also laid plans for purging the existing political parties of the evils which beset them and cause "the people to lose faith in their leaders and,

consequently, in our governing institutions". In urging the Congress to study this problem, which he deems of vital importance, and to take the measures necessary to its solution, he asserted that Democracy must provide the people with able leaders or the doors would be opened to demagoguery and, ultimately, to dictatorship.

The rapid strides of the nation toward economic recovery, the President said, may bring back certain social and labor difficulties in the industrial districts and in densely populated centers, a situation which calls for adequate preventive legislation looking toward the establishment of better relations between capital and labor. The increasing organization of workers into unions should facilitate, rather than hinder, the promulgation of effective labor legislation to prevent conflicts which would benefit no one. Joint boards, labor tribunals and conciliation and arbitration commissions were specially recommended "in order to insure good relations and harmony between those who jointly create our national wealth". A living wage is essential to the material and spiritual progress of the population, the President added.

In foreign relations, the Republic has maintained "its traditional spirit of tolerance, equanimity and solidarity", as revealed by the actions of the Argentine delegation before the League of Nations. The Anti-War Pact, sponsored by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, has been accepted by the 21 American nations, and also by a large number of European and Asiatic governments. Argentina signed the Briand-Kellogg Peace Pact. Despite the difficulties which have prevented a solution to the problem created by interruption of the Transandine railway service—particularly the contention that prospective revenues do not justify the cost of reconstructing the sections destroyed by the Mendoza floods—the Argentine Government is bending every effort to meet the situation, "conscious of what this line means to the sister Republic" of Chile.

When the 1934 budget was drafted, it was estimated that the deficit for the fiscal year would amount to 20 million pesos; this estimate included the deficit of the National Council of Education, and took into consideration the fact that, according to the laws then in force, the contribution to the pension fund and the financial aid to the Provinces would have to be met with bond issues. Fortunately, however, the deficit was practically wiped out, for the total expenditures exceeded the revenues by barely a million pesos. With regard to the expenditures which are met with cash out of the ordinary revenues, that is, for general administration, social assistance, and service on the public debt, the economies practised in the last three years have brought about a reduction of 131,000,000 pesos as compared with the actual outlay in 1930. The public debt service fell to

232,400,000 pesos in 1934, or 55,600,000 less than in 1932, practically equalling the figures for 1930, "thanks to the sharp depreciation of the pound and the dollar; to the absorption of exchange differences by the *exchange margin* account; and to the conversions effected".

The traditional policy of covering the cost of public works by means of bond issues should be modified, according to the President, for it "tends to burden the budget with increasingly large sums". The amount spent in 1934 was 110,200,000 pesos "without counting the money spent on roads which, although bound to benefit future generations, are being paid for out of cash revenues contributed by the present population".

The tax situation was reported as highly satisfactory. Necessity forced the National Government to establish income and sales taxes, and to increase some customs duties and internal taxes. An additional levy of 10 percent on imports has been maintained. Burden-some as these taxes have been to the taxpayer, the President insisted that "without them it would have been impossible to maintain the financial stability of the country." The income and sales taxes and the 10 percent additional duties yielded 151,600,000 pesos in 1934, and 435,200,000 pesos in the course of the past three years. To these must be added the naphtha tax which produced 42,300,000 pesos in 1934 and 99,000,000 during the three year period, this revenue having been set aside to cover the cost of the road building program. Meanwhile, the unification of the internal tax systems which previously were controlled by the individual Provinces and which "tended increasingly to become instruments of economic warfare which were disrupting the economic unity of the nation" through the establishment of differential duties, has proven very successful, so that now Argentina has "a single economic territory governed by uniform fiscal laws which allow products to circulate in one direction or another, by the payment of a single tax, and enable them to be sold in any part of the Republic, regardless of the Province of origin", assuring to the Provinces "increasing revenues, paid punctually and without collection expenses."

Considerable progress has been attained in the campaign against illiteracy through intensification of elementary instruction the country over. Fundamental reforms are proposed in the school system, particularly with regard to *educación media* (the years between the elementary grades and the university, often including normal and vocational courses) "modifying its basic organization in accordance with the policies demanded by present and future conditions." A committee of experts has completed a careful survey and submitted a report on the situation. Its recommendations, which call for a more comprehensive plan of study and greater efficiency in the teaching of

each subject, would be applied especially to secondary and normal schools. The Chief Executive reported complete order and discipline in the universities, "a condition essential to the realization of the lofty aims of these institutions of learning." In general, he saw positive evidence of a "greater inclination toward the study of science, literature, history and law throughout the land, owing to the activity of research institutes and the splendid opportunities afforded by public lectures in universities and in other advanced cultural centers."

The economic outlook is decidedly favorable, based on the record of the year 1934 and the first part of 1935. Commercial transactions increased by 15 percent over the volume registered in 1933; business failures have decreased; collections have improved; and there has been an appreciable increase in savings deposits. Notwithstanding the difficulties facing Argentine foreign trade, there was a favorable balance of 328,500,000 pesos in 1934, while in the first quarter of 1935 Argentine exports had exceeded the imports by 142,000,000 pesos. Nevertheless, the President declared that the country was still "far from prosperity", and that to bring about real recovery, the necessary reforms must be carried out which would prevent the repetition of past mistakes. Among these reforms, President Justo expects particularly good results from the new banking laws approved by the National Congress, establishing a Central Bank and an Institution for the Liquidation of Frozen Bank Assets.¹

The message is not so optimistic, however, with regard to the meat industry. Despite the creation of a board for the purpose of stimulating the meat exports by distributing subsidies financed with the proceeds from exchange operations, and the increase in exports to Japan, the prospects of finding new markets for this Argentine product are not considered very favorable at present. The occasional dispatch of meat to Italy for the army and the substantial increase of exports of preserved meat to the United States are only temporary palliatives, it was stated, which do not cover the heavy drop in shipments to Great Britain caused by restrictions intended to protect British production.—F. J. H.

¹ See "Banking and Monetary Reforms in Argentina", by H. Gerald Smith, in the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for June 1935.



BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

OCTOBER 1935



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Assistant Director

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

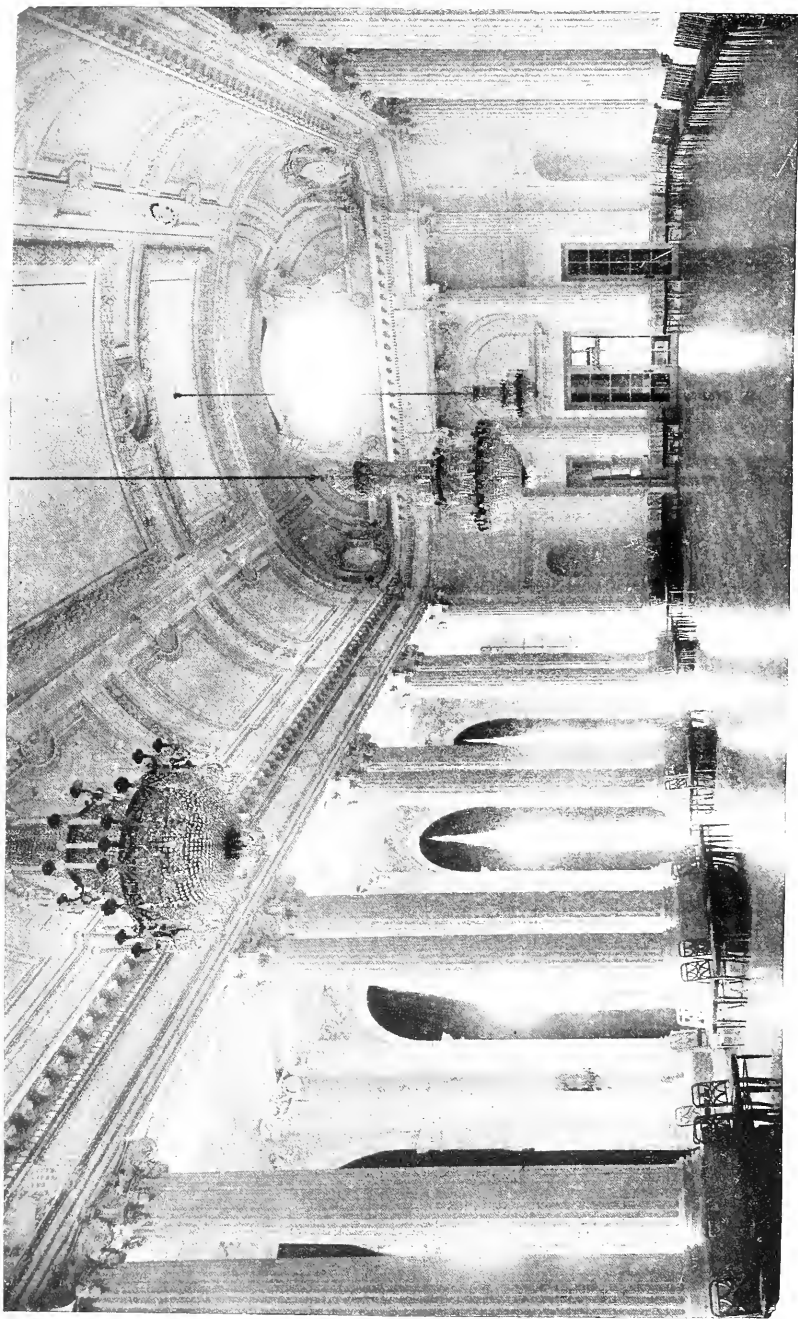
The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and an administrative division exists for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

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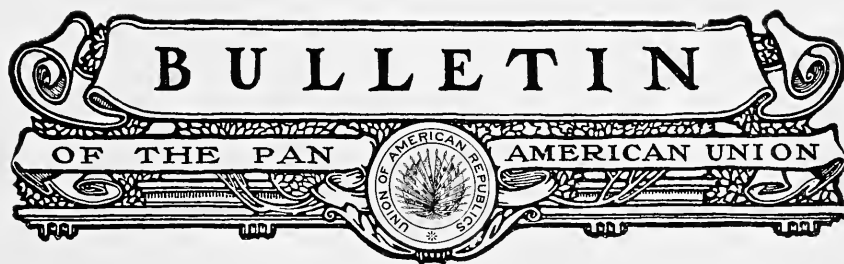
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HALL OF THE AMERICAS, PAN AMERICAN UNION.

Here the Third Assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History will meet from October 14 to 19, 1935.



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No. 10

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION WELCOMES THE ASSEMBLY OF THE PAN AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY

By L. S. ROWE, Ph.D., LL.D.

Director General of the Pan American Union

THE Pan American Union is honored by the presence in Washington of the distinguished delegates to the assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History and takes this opportunity to extend a warm and hearty welcome. It is most fitting that the sessions of the Institute be held in the Pan American Building and it is a very real privilege to place every facility of the Union at the disposal of the delegates.

The work of the Institute possesses a deep significance, not only by reason of the important problems with which it is called upon to deal, but also because of the fact that it constitutes another of the intellectual ties binding the nations of the Western World to one another.

The Pan American Union renews its greetings to the delegates and expresses the hope that the assembly held at Washington will meet with the fullest measure of success.

FOLLOW THE CONDOR AND EAGLE

By JOSÉ TERCERO

Chief, Division of Travel, Pan American Union

OF the many distinctive geographic features that make the New World a unique region on the globe, none holds greater fascination than the gigantic mountain system that forms the mighty backbone of the Americas. Although not the first to appear and take shape in the geological chronology of what is now the American continent, these majestic cordilleras have been for many centuries one of the most persistent physical factors influencing the destinies of this section of our planet.

The rich alluvial deposits of the great plains and the vast river systems that nurture the jungles and forests of the lowlands have a common origin in the great sierras. Even many of the islands that dot the seas of the Western Hemisphere were once lofty eminences of the original American ranges until some unknown cataclysm wrested them from the mainland.

It was in the mountainous valleys and highlands that there flourished the most renowned civilizations of pre-Columbian America--with the exception of the Mayan. And the lure of the precious metals imprisoned in the mountains' entrails largely determined the nature and extent of the conquest and colonization of Hispanic America and greatly affected the migrations and expansion of Anglo-Saxon America.

Osorno, Llaima, and Villarrica towered over the proud Araucanian nation and witnessed its indomitable warriors challenge successfully the Spanish invader. Aconcagua, Copiapó, El Misti, Illimani, and Ausangatá were among the southern and central sentinels of the vast Incan empire, which extended through the Andean ranges and had as northern outposts Chimborazo, Cotopaxi, and Tungurahua. Under the shadow of Popocatepetl, Ixtaccihuatl, and Orizaba rose and developed the successive civilizations that culminated in the Toltec and Aztec nations.

The epic history of the Spanish conquest is recorded in valleys, peaks, canyons, and highlands. Strongly intrenched in their new empire, the invaders turned to colonizing and their explorers, missionaries, and traders crossed and recrossed the sierras, pushing their domain farther and farther. Defying the heights, towns and cities began to rise marking each new successful strike in the relentless quest for the coveted mineral riches of the ranges.

The colorful pageant of the colony moved for centuries through the passes and defiles of the cordilleras, and when the torch of liberty was lighted in the New World the colonists battled for their independence amidst the giants of the sierras, fighting some of the decisive encounters in the very heart of the great ranges.

In the history of the development and progress of the new nations since their independence, the cordilleras as ever played a dominant part. Practically every step forward represented a new battle won in the incessant struggle against the giant, at once a generous friend and an implacable foe. Heights had to be surmounted, chasms



THE CORDILLERA OF THE ANDES.

The great mountain range stretching down the length of South America had a conspicuous role in the early history and latter-day development of that continent.

spanned, the very heart pierced to tap new resources or to join provinces and territories separated by almost inaccessible barriers.

Railroad lines began to climb the ranges, zigzagging above precipices and under towering peaks. Soon the automobiles took up the challenge, and a network of roads is steadily spreading through ridges and highlands. And now that man has got his wings, he can look down upon the highest monarchs of the mountains and claim that they are conquered at last.

This boastful assertion is far from being a mere exaggeration, as modern travelers, in increasing numbers every year, are beginning to find out. From the rim of Antarctica northward to the Isthmus



IXTACCHUATL, OR "SLEEPING WOMAN", MEXICO.

The Aztecs so named this volcano because of its fancied resemblance to the form of a reclining woman. From the pass between this and the adjacent peak of Popocatepetl, Cortez obtained his first glimpse of Mexico City.



SANTA MARÍA VOLCANO IN GUATEMALA.

Throughout the Central American portion of America's mountain range, innumerable peaks soar skywards.

of Panama, through Central America, Mexico and the Western United States, and on to the Arctic circle, the great American cordilleras with their stupendous scenic, legendary and historical treasures are easily and comfortably accessible. Nor is the indescribable experience of journeying through or across canyons, passes, highlands, and summits reserved to the bold adventurer and the daring explorer. Almost everyone is familiar with the portion of the great ranges extending northward from Mexico, but not so many know how simple it has become to follow the trails and paths of Indian and discoverer, of viceroy and liberator, of missionary and warrior, of pioneer and trader in the vast mountain chains to the south of the Río Grande.

In Mexico, the two great arms of the cordilleras that run parallel to the coasts and hold the largest portion of the country in an immense plateau, are crossed thrice from the Gulf and twice from the Pacific. Many other lines in all directions traverse the mountains and the plateau. The great capital lies at 7,400 feet above the sea. South of Mexico, the ranges are climbed by rail from both oceans in Guatemala, Costa Rica and Panama, from the Pacific in El Salvador and Nicaragua, and by rail and highway in Honduras. In Central America the ranges literally bristle with hundreds of volcanoes and lofty peaks towering over lakes and valleys of arresting beauty. By rail and road the traveler approaches the slopes covered with luxuriant vegetation and in some cases climbs to the very rim of their craters. Agua, Fuego, Atitlán, Santa María, Santa Ana, the famous Izalco, whose almost continuous flames serve as a beacon to ships on the Pacific, the twin volcano Ometepe that rises straight from the waters of Lake Nicaragua, Irazú and Poás, in Costa Rica, the former allowing the rare experience of seeing from its summit the Caribbean and the Pacific, these are among the best known landmarks of this amazing section that links the two Americas.

The northern Andes disappear into the Caribbean on the shores of Colombia and Venezuela. By rail or highway the traveler reaches beautiful Caracas, nestling over 3,000 feet above the sea. From here the Andes can be crossed by the great Bolívar Highway to Bogotá, the capital of Colombia, situated in the heart of the sierras, at an altitude of 8,500 feet.

From the Atlantic and Pacific shores Bogotá is reached by river, rail and road. The journey from the Pacific, combining railway and automobile, is an amazing succession of unforgettable panoramas. The airplane far outspeeds the river boats up the Magdalena from the Atlantic side.

In Ecuador the Andes offer the traveler one of the most grandiose spectacles in the world. The railroad from Guayaquil on the Pacific to Quito, the capital, rises from sea-level to 11,800 feet in 170 miles, surmounting the famous Devil's Nose in an amazing engineering feat



MOUNT CHIMBORAZO,
ECUADOR.

One of the highest peaks of the Andean range, Chimborazo reaches an altitude of 20,576 feet.



THE TORTUOUS ROUTE
OF THE CENTRAL
RAILWAY OF PERU.

A remarkable engineering achievement, the line at 15,865 feet reaches the highest point of any standard gauge railroad in operation in the world. The ascent to this altitude is made in 106 miles of trackage.

Photograph by W. V. Alford.

MOUNT ILLIMANI,
BOLIVIA.

From the Sucre monument
in La Paz, Illimani is an
impressive sight.



BALSAS ON LAKE
TITICACA.

One route from the Pacific
coast to the Bolivian capital
takes the traveler
across picturesque Lake
Titicaca.





Reproduced by permission from Robert Gerstman's "Chile."

THE ANDES AND ACONCAGUA.

The loftiest peak in the Americas, Aconcagua rises 23,380 feet above sea level. The snow-covered Andes form a background for the green pasture land just outside Los Andes, a junction of the Transandine Railway.

where the train climbs 2,900 feet in five minutes over sheer granite walls. Soon the traveller gets his first glimpse of Chimborazo, the highest monarch of the Ecuadorean Andes, rising 20,700 feet above the sea, to be followed by the awe-inspiring sight of no less than four great volcanoes, ranging from 16,600 to 19,500 feet in height.

In Peru and Bolivia travel over the Andes must be pointed with superlatives. The Peruvian cordilleras are crossed twice by rail, and thrice by road. Both the standard-gauge railroad from Lima to Cerro del Pasco and the highway to Huánuco have the distinction of being the highest in the world. The railroad attains its highest point at 15,805 feet, while the highway reaches 17,562 feet above the sea. The central highway from Lima to Oroya and Tarma, opened to traffic only last July, is perhaps one of the most scenic in existence. And from Mollendo the traveller ascends into the highlands to reach Cuzco, the great Incan capital, center of one of the richest archaeological regions of South America, and marvelous Lake Titicaca, at 12,500 feet, the highest navigable body of water on the planet, reflecting in its clear, dark-blue waters the lovely islands that rise from its depths. La Paz, the loftiest capital, is set in the heart of the Andean ranges at 12,790 feet above the sea, in a region where four colossi of the cordillera, Illampu, Illimani, Sajama and Chacacomani, all thrust their snowclad peaks toward the sky at more than 21,000 feet.



A PANAGRA PLANE AT AREQUIPA, PERU.

By the development of aviation, man has achieved his final conquest of the heights.

The lofty Bolivian plateau is the best served section of the Andes in point of accessibility from below. Three railroads, two of them crossing the northern Chilean ranges, climb the sierras from the Pacific, and one from Buenos Aires, the latter leaving the pampa and crossing in a steady ascent part of the wide and beautiful Andean provinces of Argentina.

The snowy ridges which form the dividing line between Chile and Argentina are towered over by cyclopean Aconcagua, the mightiest peak in all the New World, serenely surveying its realm from 23,380 feet. The far-famed Transandine railway joins Argentina and Chile, surmounting the cordillera not far from Aconcagua. Part of the crossing from Mendoza to Punta de Vacas is made by automobile through Uspallata pass, at a height of 13,000 feet. This break in the journey adds greatly to the scenic beauty of the trip. The eastern slopes in Argentine territory are reached by four railroads from the Atlantic, and almost the entire length of the western ranges is traversed from north to south by Chile's admirable railroad and highway systems. The superb lake regions of Chile and Argentina are without doubt one of the most magically beautiful sections in all the world, culminating in the channel and fjord region where the mountains begin their plunge into the sub-Antarctic seas. The traveler navigates through narrow channels, hemmed in by the protruding summits of the sunken cordillera which form islands of fantastic shapes, with giant peaks, volcanoes and glaciers. During

the southern summer months of December and January regular excursions to this region and through the Strait of Magellan are made from both Chile and Argentina.

The great airways of the Americas, in a giant transportation system that covers the entire continent, have indeed played a most important part in the final conquest of the heights. Their amazing growth achieved in a few years and their enviable record of safety and reliability constitute one of the most brilliant pages in the history of transportation. The traveler who misses seeing from the air the majesty of America's great mountain system, symbolic of the unity, the strength and the lofty destinies of the New World, is denying himself a privilege long reserved to the condor and the eagle.



MUSIC OF THE HEMISPHERES

By BURLE MARX ¹

Director, Philharmonic Orchestra of Rio de Janeiro

UNTIL the present time South Americans have had little knowledge of North American music and artists. Except for the concerts of Latin American music given several times a year by the Pan American Union and broadcast throughout the Americas, musicians here in the United States have been equally ignorant of what was being produced in South America. Until four years ago South Americans knew only the music of their own country. Their point of view was purely local. It was with considerable effort that the Philharmonic Orchestra under my direction started to educate music lovers of Brazil in the works produced by her sister Republics. Upon one occasion the Philharmonic Orchestra played a whole concert of Argentine music. At other times single works by Argentine composers were performed. Next I took a whole program of Brazilian music to Argentina. And at the Teatro Colón in Buenos Aires I conducted a program of music from four Latin American countries—Brazil, Argentina, Uruguay, and Chile—with works by 10 different composers. During my concert season in Chile I introduced Brazilian music there for the first time. These concerts awakened a very real interest, the result of which is an active and stimulating communication not only between the composers of the various Latin American countries but among artists as well. It is my great hope to develop a similar musical relationship between the United States and the whole South American continent.

During the last 20 years each country in South America has produced its own composers, many of them worthy of being heard in the cultural centers of the world. Brazil has Carlos Gomes, Nepomuceno, Henrique Oswald, among the earlier composers; and among the later ones Villa-Lobos, Lourenzo Fernandez, Francisco Mignone, Camargo

¹ The American musical public first had an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the author of this article last summer, when he conducted to the admiration of audience and critics two performances of the National Symphony Orchestra in Washington and a broadcast of the Columbia Symphony Orchestra in honor of the Brazilian National holiday, September 7. His American audience concurred in the opinion of Enrique Soró, the eminent Chilean maestro, who said of Marx: "His executions are framed with rhythmic exactitude in a variety of colors which are shadowed fantastically. He transmits to the orchestra what he feels, the very soul of the music."

Mr. Marx was born in São Paulo in 1902. Most of his musical studies were made in Germany under the direction of Professor Friedrich E. Koch, James Kwast, and Reznicek in Berlin, but he also studied in Basle with Weingartner and in London with Tobias Matthay. Since 1930 he has directed the Rio de Janeiro Philharmonic Orchestra, which he himself founded. Under his direction, the Ninth Symphony of Beethoven with choir was given for the first time in Rio de Janeiro. Mr. Marx is well known throughout South America, where he has been guest conductor with a number of orchestras.—EDITOR.

Guarnieri, and Assis Republicano. By the use of Indian themes in combination with African rhythms these men have contrived a quite original base for their musical compositions. Argentina has produced such composers as J. J. Castro, Pascual de Rogatis, Athos Palma, José André, Gianneo, Williams, Ugarte—all of them men of great musical technique. They too have formed their own school. Uruguay has Fabini and Cluseau Mortet. Chile has Enrique Soró, Humberto Allende, and Leng.



COLÓN THEATER, BUENOS AIRES.

In the magnificent Colón Theater, the largest opera house in the Americas, the author conducted a program of works by 10 different composers from Argentina, Brazil, Chile, and Uruguay.

These countries have entered into a close musical relationship which includes both composers and reproductive artists. There are a number of Chilean pianists of merit beside Claudio Arrau, who has a European reputation. I have had the opportunity of conducting for Rosita Renard, who is known in the United States; and for Armando Palacios, who played under my baton the *Rhapsody in Blue*. Argentina has an excellent pianist, also, in Ruiz Díaz. Brazil has the very famous Guiomar Novaes, as well as Antonita Rudge and

J. Souza Lima. And among violinists there are Pery Machado and Romeo Ghipsman; among 'cellists there is Iberê Gomes Grosso. And the younger generation has many artists—especially pianists of great promise.

The best orchestra in South America is that of the Teatro Colón, in Buenos Aires, which has been municipally supported since 1925, and plays each year for a period of five to seven months. The municipality also supports a very good choir and an excellent ballet. For many years the Argentine Republic helped another orchestra formed by the *Asociación del Profesorado Orquestal*, which gave a season of concerts annually with an outstanding European conductor. But it is the Teatro Colón which is the center of musical life—and especially opera—in South America. In Brazil conditions are more difficult because of the lack of concentration of population. The opera season has to be divided between Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo, and musical life of other kinds begins in Pernambuco (Recife) and extends all the way down to Rio Grande do Sul (Porto Alegre). Of late, artists such as Fritz Kreisler have arrived at Pernambuco by the *Graf Zeppelin*, given a concert, and continued the next day on the *Zeppelin* to Rio de Janeiro. Of the orchestras at Rio de Janeiro three have been supported by the municipality at the same time. For the last four years the Philharmonic Orchestra has held the leadership with 60 first performances of works ranging from Bach to Ravel. In Chile there is a competent orchestra formed of musicians who came from Europe for the opera season and have since made Chile their own country. Because of the distance and expense of going to Chile from the capitals on the Atlantic, many artists are prevented from making their appearance in that beautiful and charming country, of which I have the most delightful memories. In Uruguay the government supports an excellent orchestra of 106 musicians, the *Orquesta Sinfónica del Servicio Oficial de Difusión Radio Eléctrica*.

Music by South American composers would be performed more frequently were it not for the difficulty of getting scores and orchestral parts. It is hoped that this difficulty can be eliminated by special libraries in Montevideo under the direction of Professor Francisco Curt Lange, a man of great energy and executive ability. Through his efforts we now have that wonderful publication, the *Boletín Latino-Americano de Música*, which I cannot recommend too strongly to all who are interested in the musical life of Latin America. The *Boletín* will be published twice a year, with the most prominent musicians of South America contributing articles and music for the supplement. The organization of the *Boletín* is due entirely to the personal effort of Mr. Lange. He has been traveling in Argentina, making personal contacts, and holding conferences not only in

Buenos Aires but also in other important centers. In Brazil he was fortunate enough to get the help of Mr. Luís Heitor Corrêia de Azevedo, President of the *Associação Brasileira de Música*, and librarian of the *Instituto Nacional de Música* at Rio de Janeiro. Because of the distances between capitals and the difficulties of communication, Mr. Lange's *Boletín* represents a very real achievement, of intrinsic excellence and of great promise to the future.

I came to the United States with the object not only of making South American works better known, but also of meeting young



MUNICIPAL THEATER, RIO DE JANEIRO.

Many of the concerts in the Brazilian capital are given in the Municipal Theater.

American composers and artists. I have been so extremely fortunate as to be admitted to the MacDowell Colony at Peterborough, New Hampshire. The MacDowell Colony is located on the top of a high hill within sight of Mount Monadnock. It has accommodations for 25 men and women—living quarters, a dining and recreation hall, and very delightful studios situated here and there in a beautiful pine forest. In these studios the artists can work all day long without distraction of any kind. At noon their lunch is left outside on the doorstep. In the evening they come together again like a big family—poets and scholars, painters, writers, sculptors, composers. All are

happy because they are translating the life of their imagination into reality, creating, doing the work they love most.

Of the composers whom I met here during June and July, Spencer Norton of Oklahoma made the deepest impression upon me. Mr. Norton is a young man of 26, modest, with enormous musical knowledge and very excellent taste. I do not say too much if I predict that he will some day be the leading composer of the United States. Among the other musicians were David Diamond, winner of the Whitman Prize; James Spencer, with his strong emotional music, especially a very fine symphonesque for organ; Sol Cohen, with his delightful fresh melodies and his special talent for light music; Joseph Wagner, with his sense for rhythms; Dr. Hamilton C. MacDougall, a man of great musical erudition, and two women composers—Mabel Daniels and Radie Britain. I must confess that I have not had too much faith in women as creative artists. But in the United States they occupy a far more important position than they do in South America and other parts of the world. And I have been obliged, after hearing the work of Miss Daniels and Miss Britain, to revise my opinion. Mabel Daniels is an excellent composer who specializes in choral music and writes with great sincerity. Radie Britain is the winner of a national competition with her heroic poem *Lindbergh*, composed for symphony orchestra. She has great talent, and since she is young, much can be expected from her.

During June and July I met also at the MacDowell Colony such painters as Lewis Daniel, Sybil Emerson, O. W. Guglielmi, Jeffrey Levey, Mildred Shires, and Stuyvesant Van Veen; such poets as Robert Fitzgerald, Frances Frost, and Chard Powers Smith; such playwrights as Esther Bates and Frederic Day; such writers as Frederika Beatty, Emily Croff, Kenneth Kempton, William Maxwell, Mary Mears, Tess Slessenger, and Irene H. Wilson.

The idea for the MacDowell Colony originated with the American composer Edward MacDowell. After his death it was fulfilled by the untiring effort and the indomitable courage of his widow. For more than 25 years Mrs. MacDowell has travelled from one end of the United States to the other, giving lectures and concerts, raising more than a hundred thousand dollars so that this unique and very wonderful idea could be realized. Now there is a permanent creative center where young and old artists from all over the country meet together and work. Mrs. MacDowell not only manages the colony with great efficiency, but also is the very soul of the place, and one of the finest women I have ever known. At this time, therefore, may I appeal to all those who love music and painting and poetry not to forget the MacDowell Colony and the irreplaceable service it is giving to America.

COTTON IN BRAZIL¹

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

EARLY explorers and settlers in Brazil in the sixteenth century reported that the Indians used fabrics woven of cotton, and it is not improbable that cotton is indigenous in certain regions of the country. The cultivation of cotton was undertaken by settlers early in colonial days, principally in the regions of Bahia, Pernambuco, and Maranhão. Export shipments are reported to have been made as early as 1700, and spinning and weaving mills were set up in Minas Geraes about 1775. It is also reported that hand spinners and weavers were brought by the Portuguese from India to teach their trades to the colonists.

But it was not until the American Civil War, when European spinners were unable to obtain American cotton, that the cotton-growing industry became of major importance in Brazil. Shipments of Brazilian cotton are said to have reached a figure of 368,000 bales (of 478 pounds net) during the American Civil War, but with a return to normal conditions in the United States, the Brazilian cotton crop declined, the planters generally returning to coffee and sugar. Cotton production in Brazil underwent a further decline following the abolition of slavery in 1888, and for a number of years thereafter coffee, rubber, and to a less extent, sugar, completely overshadowed cotton in the economic life of the country.

With the decline of the rubber industry in Brazil in the early part of the present century, the country lost its second most important export commodity, and both capital and labor again began to turn to cotton. The World War provided a further stimulus to the Brazilian cotton industry, and over recent years Brazil has become an increasingly important factor in world cotton production. During the 5-year period from 1909-10 to 1913-14, Brazilian cotton production averaged approximately 387,000 bales, which figure grew to an average of 572,000 bales for the 5 years 1924-25 to 1928-29. Recent estimates from the Brazilian Ministry of Agriculture place 1934-35 production at 1,591,000 bales. The following tables summarize Brazilian cotton acreage, production, and yields during recent years and give similar figures for other specified countries.

¹ Excerpted from a report on "The World Cotton Situation and Foreign Cotton Production (Preliminary)" issued by the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, United States Department of Agriculture. April 29, 1935.—EDITOR.

Cotton, Brazil: Acreage, production, and yield per acre

Year	Acreage	Production	Yield per acre
	<i>1,000 acres</i>	<i>1,000 bales, 478 pounds net</i>	<i>Pounds</i>
Average 1911-12 to 1913-14.....	887	418	225
Average 1924-25 to 1928-29.....	1,329	572	205
1928-29.....	1,358	446	157
1929-30.....	1,461	583	191
1930-31.....	1,656	471	136
1931-32.....	1,941	575	142
1932-33.....	1,810	448	118
1933-34 ¹	2,520	969	184
1934-35 ¹	(²)	1,591	(²)

¹ Preliminary.² Not available.

Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Division of Statistical and Historical Research.

Cotton: Estimates of production, specified countries, 1920-21 to 1934-35

[1,000 bales of 478 pounds net]

Crop year	United States	India	China ¹	Russia	Egypt	Brazil	Peru	Mexico
1920-21.....	13,429	3,013	1,883	58	1,251	476	177	² 188
1921-22.....	7,945	3,752	1,514	43	902	504	186	147
1922-23.....	9,755	4,245	2,318	55	1,391	553	199	202
1923-24.....	10,140	4,320	1,993	197	1,353	576	212	175
1924-25.....	13,630	5,095	2,178	453	1,507	793	212	196
1925-26.....	16,105	5,201	2,102	782	1,650	602	210	200
1926-27.....	17,978	4,205	1,742	830	1,586	512	246	360
1927-28.....	12,956	4,990	1,875	1,096	1,261	509	246	179
1928-29.....	14,477	4,838	2,466	1,174	1,672	446	225	278
1929-30.....	14,825	4,387	2,116	1,279	1,768	583	303	246
1930-31.....	13,932	4,373	2,457	1,589	1,715	471	271	178
1931-32.....	17,095	3,353	1,785	1,843	1,323	575	234	210
1932-33.....	13,001	3,898	2,261	1,816	1,028	448	242	102
1933-34 ³	13,047	4,197	2,720	1,887	1,777	969	276	260
1934-35 ³	9,634	3,613	2,800	1,937	1,617	1,591	276	209

Crop year	Argentina	Uganda	Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	Chosen (Korea)	Estimated foreign		Estimated world total including China
					Excluding China and Russia	Total	
1920-21.....	26	68	26	101	5,637	7,578	21,007
1921-22.....	17	40	20	82	5,932	7,489	15,434
1922-23.....	26	74	24	103	7,134	9,507	19,262
1923-24.....	59	108	38	112	7,365	9,555	19,695
1924-25.....	67	164	41	123	8,669	11,300	24,930
1925-26.....	135	151	106	123	8,942	11,826	27,931
1926-27.....	58	110	130	143	7,867	10,439	28,417
1927-28.....	115	116	111	133	8,104	11,075	24,031
1928-29.....	118	171	142	150	8,646	12,286	26,763
1929-30.....	15	108	139	139	8,451	11,846	26,671
1930-31.....	159	158	106	149	8,143	12,189	26,121
1931-32.....	169	173	206	101	6,871	10,499	27,594
1932-33.....	150	247	121	136	6,860	10,937	23,938
1933-34 ³	200	228	135	140	8,865	13,478	26,525
1934-35 ³	-----	240	196	140	8,842	13,579	23,213

¹ Estimates of the Chinese Mill Owners' Association and the Chinese Statistical Association.² Includes Laguna District and Lower California only.³ Preliminary.

Bureau of Agricultural Economics, Division of Statistical and Historical Research. From official sources, International Institute of Agriculture and estimates of the Bureau of Agricultural Economics, except as noted.

TRENDS IN ACREAGE, PRODUCTION AND YIELDS

Cotton is grown in two distinct regions in Brazil: (1) The northeastern States, principally Parahyba, Pernambuco, Ceará, Rio Grande do Norte, Maranhão, Alagoas, Sergipe, Bahia, Piauí, and Pará, and (2) the southern States, where the major producing areas are found in the States of São Paulo, Minas Geraes, Paraná, and Rio de Janeiro. Soil and climatic factors in the two districts are greatly different, and the cotton grown is of distinctly different types and qualities. Southern Brazil produces cotton of the American upland type, while in the northeastern States production is largely of the famous Brazilian tree cotton. In the interior of the northeastern States, cotton is of first importance in the agricultural life of the district, and in many sections is the only cash crop grown. In southern Brazil, although acreage and production have increased greatly in the last year or two, cotton is a poor second in importance to coffee as a cash crop.

During the period for which acreage data are available, the total cotton area of all Brazil has exceeded 2,000,000 acres only since 1932-33. The average acreage for the 10-year period ended 1933-34 was 1,603,000 acres. The average acreage for the first 5 years of this period (1924-25 to 1928-29) was 1,329,000 acres, while for the last 5 years (1929-30 to 1933-34) it averaged 1,877,000 acres. The increase during the last 5-year period was due primarily to the unusually high acreage of the last 3 years, 1933-34 acreage having reached the all-time high figure of 2,519,000 acres, while the 1931-32 and 1932-33 acreages totaled 1,941,000 and 1,810,000 acres, respectively.

As will be noted from the following table, cotton acreage in the southern States in particular has fluctuated widely in the last 10 years. From a peak of 463,000 acres in 1923-24, cotton plantings in the southern States declined to 155,000 acres in 1929-30, but since that year have increased rapidly, until a record acreage of 1,113,000 acres was reached in 1933-34.

During the 5-year period ended 1928-29, the southern States planted only 19.4 percent of the total cotton area in Brazil, the northeastern States accounting for 80.6 percent. During the low-acreage year of 1929-30, the southern States accounted for little more than 10 percent of the total Brazilian acreage, while in the 1933-34 record year acreage in the southern area had climbed to 44.2 percent of the total cotton plantings. Over the 5-year period ended 1933-34 the southern States accounted for 27.1 percent of the total Brazilian cotton acreage.

In the northeastern States, where cotton has been the traditional crop over a long period of years, total acreage has not fluctuated in so great a degree as has acreage in the southern States. Short-

term fluctuations in acreage in the northeastern States appear to have been due in a considerable degree to variations in rainfall, as much of that region suffers periodically from severe droughts. Cotton as a rule not being subject to price competition from alternative crops, cotton acreage in the northeastern States has not been so sensitive to price factors as has been the cotton acreage in the coffee-growing southern States. . . .

The Brazilian cotton crop over the last 20 years has averaged approximately 520,000 bales (of 478 pounds) per year. Of this, the northeastern States have produced an average annual crop of about 387,000 bales, or almost 75 percent of the country's total, against



Courtesy of the Minas Geraes Agricultural Experiment Station.

A COTTON FIELD.

This cotton, under cultivation in one of the new cotton-growing areas of southern Brazil, is of the American upland variety.

an average annual crop of about 133,000 bales in the southern States. . . .

Although the increase in production of the country as a whole during the 1929-30 to 1933-34 period, when compared with the immediately preceding 5-year period, was not particularly outstanding, the increase of the last 3 years, and especially of 1933-34 and 1934-35, in the southern States, is of marked significance. As shown in the following table, production in the southern States increased from 83,000 bales in 1930-31 to a crop estimated at 500,000 bales in 1933-34 and to a preliminary estimate of 853,000 bales in 1934-35, the latter figure being equivalent to 53.6 percent of the total estimated Brazilian crop. . . .

Cotton, Brazil: Estimates of acreage, by States, 1921-22 to date

[1,000 acres]

Season	Northeastern States											Total
	Pará	Mara-nhão	Piauihy	Ceará	Rio Grande do Norte	Para-hyba	Per-nam-buco	Ala-gôas	Ser-gipe	Bahia	Other States	
1921-22.....	12.5	123.6	28.5	170.9	113.2	132.8	120.9	74.1	52.7	30.4	1.3	860.9
1922-23.....	15.9	137.5	40.7	208.7	156.1	165.4	160.8	78.7	63.1	40.5	2.0	1,069.4
1923-24.....	16.4	136.9	41.4	211.7	161.6	169.3	166.5	77.3	63.7	40.8	2.3	1,087.9
1924-25.....	23.5	155.9	51.6	199.5	163.2	169.9	182.2	75.5	56.1	45.9	4.2	1,127.5
1925-26.....	9.6	142.4	73.6	154.4	135.5	177.9	153.5	73.6	51.9	29.6	6.5	1,008.5-
1926-27.....	13.7	101.7	52.0	112.1	97.5	173.0	185.3	62.9	60.3	48.2	4.7	1,911.4+
1927-28.....	21.4	116.6	12.4	237.2	143.3	207.6	197.7	57.1	74.1	49.4	4.7	1,121.5
1928-29.....	25.0	60.3	35.3	289.1	173.0	197.7	222.4	65.6	61.5	57.6	0	1,187.5
1929-30.....	35.3	75.4	22.6	237.2	178.9	212.5	296.5	131.0	67.4	49.4	0	1,306.2
1930-31.....	57.8	270.0	36.5	135.1	139.9	237.4	248.4	81.9	84.2	77.5	0	1,368.7
1931-32.....	33.0	323.4	41.4	138.4	199.7	303.4	286.6	122.3	76.4	58.4	0	1,583.0
1932-33.....	54.4	82.4	44.1	123.6	135.9	210.0	296.5	131.1	37.8	61.8	0	1,177.6
1933-34 ⁴	61.8	82.6	42.0	74.1	247.1	370.6	165.6	164.8	123.6	74.1	0	1,406.3

Season	Southern States					All Brazil
	Rio de Janeiro	São Paulo	Minas Geraes	Other States	Total	
1921-22.....	0.9	247.2	71.0	4.5	323.6	1,184.5
1922-23.....	1.3	351.6	84.4	5.4	442.7	1,512.1
1923-24.....	1.6	377.7	77.6	5.8	462.7	1,550.6
1924-25.....	3.6	337.7	94.9	9.9	446.1	1,573.6
1925-26.....	4.6	235.9	61.8	9.5	311.8	1,320.3
1926-27.....	5.2	130.3	34.7	9.0	179.2	1,090.6
1927-28.....	6.2	104.8	57.4	11.5	179.9	1,301.4
1928-29.....	9.5	92.5	59.3	8.9	170.2	1,357.7
1929-30.....	40.5	52.2	60.0	2.5	155.2	1,461.4
1930-31.....	29.5	148.3	105.9	3.5	287.2	1,655.9
1931-32.....	13.6	228.1	116.5	0	358.2	1,941.2
1932-33.....	60.8	438.2	125.8	7.6	632.4	1,810.0
1933-34 ⁴	859.9	217.5	35.8	1,113.2	2,519.5

¹ Use as 1,008,000 acres.² Use as 912,000 acres.³ Use as 1,121,000 acres.⁴ Preliminary.

Division of Statistical and Historical Research.

Compiled from official sources.

Cotton, Brazil: Estimates of production, by States, 1911-12 to date

[1,000 bales of 478 pounds]

Season beginning August	Northeastern States										Southern States					All Brazil	
	Pará	Maranhão	Piauí	Ceará	Rio Grande do Norte	Paraíba	Per-nambuco	Alagoas	Sergipe	Bahia	Other States	Total	Rio de Janeiro	São Paulo	Minas Geraes		Other States
1911	(1)	38.2	10.2	58.5	37.5	53.5	48.9	28.4	25.0	11.7	(2)	311.9	---	25.9	22.5	---	48.4
1912	(1)	48.4	13.7	63.8	43.2	48.8	52.8	28.1	27.0	13.0	(2)	338.8	---	55.1	24.1	---	79.2
1913	---	59.0	16.7	72.8	52.8	60.8	68.3	31.7	24.8	15.0	(2)	402.2	---	43.2	29.4	---	74.6
1914	---	54.8	14.8	69.7	49.0	60.8	65.6	31.4	22.4	15.8	(2)	384.7	---	50.0	30.1	---	80.1
1915	---	33.6	10.3	52.8	34.9	42.8	46.8	31.4	20.6	14.0	(2)	287.9	---	33.9	16.9	---	464.8
1916	---	32.8	10.5	47.3	32.4	42.8	46.9	27.9	17.6	14.0	(2)	273.2	---	46.7	16.8	---	338.7
1917	---	46.9	8.8	58.0	37.4	49.5	50.9	22.4	21.7	14.3	(2)	318.7	---	76.5	18.3	---	336.7
1918	---	36.7	8.6	52.8	33.3	52.5	50.9	26.4	18.7	11.0	30.1	294.5	---	91.1	20.8	---	413.5
1919	---	38.1	9.0	63.1	35.2	56.5	60.5	26.4	21.5	13.6	3.2	332.7	---	105.8	22.0	---	406.4
1920	---	50.4	10.8	71.9	39.0	54.1	47.1	34.1	21.3	13.2	---	367.4	---	99.4	29.7	---	460.5
1921	---	52.6	12.1	72.8	48.2	56.5	51.5	31.5	22.4	12.9	---	391.0	---	105.2	30.2	---	476.2
1922	---	50.9	14.9	76.3	57.1	60.4	58.8	28.8	23.7	14.8	---	404.1	---	128.6	30.9	---	504.1
1923	---	50.9	15.4	78.6	60.0	62.9	61.8	28.7	23.7	15.1	---	406.5	---	140.3	28.8	---	553.0
1924	---	72.9	25.4	99.8	81.0	86.3	89.4	40.8	31.6	27.3	1.8	566.5	---	177.3	40.6	---	793.2
1925	---	59.5	19.4	85.3	81.7	95.0	76.1	28.0	13.4	11.5	1.5	482.8	---	81.2	29.5	---	691.6
1926	---	49.3	16.4	67.3	63.5	92.2	73.8	29.1	19.1	13.8	1.5	430.7	---	3.2	21.5	---	512.4
1927	---	46.0	5.7	78.4	62.3	91.8	87.7	20.2	21.2	13.4	---	435.3	---	3.3	20.5	---	510.1
1928	---	33.8	6.9	92.3	49.6	83.0	78.4	20.3	17.8	12.9	---	400.5	---	20.5	18.9	---	509.1
1929	---	42.2	6.0	92.2	85.0	133.7	101.5	20.3	23.6	11.5	---	530.5	---	18.1	20.6	---	545.8
1930	---	64.6	7.7	64.6	46.1	83.0	60.0	20.4	17.3	16.1	---	387.7	---	50.7	23.1	---	583.2
1931	---	63.8	8.7	64.5	65.9	106.1	69.2	30.4	19.0	12.0	---	448.9	---	8.9	25.3	---	471.2
1932	---	35.4	7.1	13.8	25.4	41.5	41.5	28.6	8.3	16.1	---	226.0	---	97.5	50.7	---	574.7
1933	---	48.5	10.2	50.7	80.7	93.3	69.2	47.0	28.5	23.1	---	468.3	---	160.1	50.7	---	908.7
1934	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	737.9	---	417.3	61.3	---	863.3
1934	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	1,591.2

1 Less than 50 bales.

2 Less than 50 bales in Amazonas.

3 Amazonas.

4 Use as 430,000 bales.

5 Preliminary.

Division of Statistical and Historical Research. Compiled from official sources.

Estimated production of cotton, by staple lengths, Brazil, 1932-33

States	Quantities				Percentages			
	Less than $\frac{7}{8}$ inch	$\frac{7}{8}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches	$1\frac{1}{2}$ inches and longer	Total	Less than $\frac{7}{8}$ inch	$\frac{7}{8}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches	$1\frac{1}{2}$ inches and longer	Total
	1,000 bales	1,000 bales	1,000 bales	1,000 bales	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
<i>Northeastern</i>								
Pará.....		8.1	0.2	8.3		97.1	2.9	100.0
Maranhão.....	1.5	19.9	14.0	35.4	4.2	56.3	39.5	100.0
Piauí.....	.1	6.7	.3	7.1	1.1	95.1	3.8	100.0
Ceará.....	.3	5.2	8.3	13.8	2.5	37.4	60.1	100.0
Rio Grande do Norte.....	.3	3.0	22.1	25.4	1.4	11.7	86.9	100.0
Parahyba.....	3.2	18.8	19.5	41.5	7.7	45.4	46.9	100.0
Pernambuco.....	.3	31.1	10.1	41.5	.8	74.8	24.4	100.0
Alagoas.....	.3	28.3		28.6	.9	99.1		100.0
Sergipe.....	1.2	7.1		8.3	14.3	85.7		100.0
Bahia.....	1.3	14.8		16.1	8.2	91.8		100.0
Total.....	8.5	143.0	74.5	226.0	3.8	63.2	33.0	100.0
<i>Southern</i> ¹								
Rio de Janeiro.....	(²)	8.7	0.5	9.2	0.2	94.2	5.6	100.0
São Paulo.....	.3	150.8	9.0	160.1	.2	94.2	5.6	100.0
Minas Geraes.....	.1	47.8	2.8	50.7	.2	94.2	5.6	100.0
Other States.....	(²)	1.7	.1	1.8	.2	94.2	5.6	100.0
Total.....	.4	209.0	12.4	221.8	.2	94.2	5.6	100.0
All Brazil.....	8.9	352.0	86.9	447.8	2.0	78.6	19.4	100.0

¹ Percentages for São Paulo used for other states in southern Brazil.² Less than 500 bales.

Bureau of Agricultural Economics. Based on an official compilation of staple lengths for the Brazilian crop, published in "*Economical Aspects of Brazilian Cultivation*" by J. M. de Lyra, 1933. Publication #4 of the Director of Public Statistics, Rio de Janeiro. Millimeter lengths were converted to inches on the assumption less than 23 mm. equals shorter than $\frac{7}{8}$ -inch; 23 to 29 mm. equals $\frac{7}{8}$ -inch to $1\frac{1}{2}$ -inches; and 30 mm. and longer equals $1\frac{1}{2}$ -inches and longer. These conversions are made with the knowledge that differences in classing and in the collection of this information may affect the comparability of these lengths with similar lengths of American cotton classed on Official Standards, but a comparison of staple length designations for actual samples received from Brazil and classed by qualified government classifiers in the United States indicates that these conversions are approximately accurate. Furthermore only cotton exported from Brazil was classified in 1932-33.

TYPES AND QUALITY OF BRAZILIAN COTTON

The major part of the cotton grown in northeastern Brazil is of the long-staple perennial tree-cotton varieties, while the southern Brazilian cotton is of the American upland varieties. The characteristics of the northeast and the south overlap to a certain extent in the central sections of the country. For example, some tree cotton may be grown in Minas Geraes, the northernmost State of southern Brazil, while, on the other hand, considerable quantities of short-staple annual cotton, of the American upland type, are grown in some districts in northern Brazil. . . .

GOVERNMENT INTERVENTION AND AID

Government intervention and aid to the cotton industry in Brazil take several forms.

1. *Protective tariffs.*—The National Government imposes a practically prohibitive tariff on foreign cotton, amounting with surtax to 4.576 milreis per gross kilogram, which is equivalent at present rates of exchange to approximately \$0.171² per pound. In addition,

² On Sept. 10, 1935, equivalent to \$0.178 per pound.—EDITOR.

the local textile industry is protected by a high tariff on yarns and finished goods, the Brazilian tariff on cotton cloth ranking as one of the highest, if not the highest, in the world. . . .

2. *Government gin inspection, cotton classification, etc.*—Federal Decree No. 24,049 of March 27, 1934, requires the annual registration and licensing of all cotton gins and presses. It also provides for an annual inspection of all ginneries, and grants a period of 18 months in which existing ginneries must be made to conform with standard practice. Although the Textile Plant Bureau of the Federal Ministry of Agriculture is charged with the execution of these measures, provision is made for the transfer of such authority to the States that maintain duly organized cotton services. In connection with this decree, it is of interest that exports of American ginning machinery to Brazil were valued at \$558,000 in 1934, against \$68,000 in 1933. Doubtless much of this machinery went to replace obsolete equipment, rather than to new plants.

Federal decree no. 20211 of July 14, 1931, provided for the official classification of all cotton destined for export. On July 12, 1933, there was issued decree No. 22,929, which provides that *all* cotton transactions must be effected according to the quality of the product as determined by official classification certificates. It was further decreed that the Federal Textile Plant Bureau install classification commissions in the principal cotton centers of Brazil.

The above measures covering cotton ginning and classification may be expected to overcome much of the former criticism of foreign spinners concerning variations in quality of Brazilian cotton and defects due to improper ginning.

In addition to its measures relating to ginning and classification, the Federal Government, by decree no. 22982 of July 25, 1933, entrusted the Federal Textile Plant Bureau of the Ministry of Agriculture with the distribution throughout Brazil of cottonseed for planting purposes, which duty may be transferred to the State governments. Prior to this the distribution of seed was regulated in some of the States by the State governments and as a result the quality of the cotton was improved considerably. This decree may bring about further improvement in the quality of the cotton and may result in increasing yields since the various agricultural experiment stations throughout the States are at work developing the varieties of cotton best suited to local conditions.

3. *Publicity encouraging cotton production.*—The Brazilian press has carried a great deal of publicity from both official and private sources, looking toward the development of cotton as a second export crop, so that Brazil's export trade will not be so completely dependent on coffee. Local newspapers published editorials, and stories of sales of cotton abroad, as well as accounts of local planters and farmers who have made large sums from cotton. This is particularly effective in

the southern States, such as São Paulo, where mass education is probably higher than in other sections of the country. Local citizens who take pride in the development of their State are encouraged to invest capital in cotton gins and other equipment, while large planters are encouraged to turn to cotton or to finance small growers who wish to produce cotton.

4. *Drought-relief program.*—The Federal and State governments have undertaken since 1931 an extensive public-works and drought-

TREE COTTON OF
THE VERDÃO VA-
RIETY IN BAHIA.

Tree cotton is the more common kind in northern Brazil where, since the advent of the rainy seasons varies, planting, pruning, and picking are carried on in one part or another throughout the year. The verdão fiber is especially strong, long, and and silky in appearance. Tree cotton is replanted only every three to ten years.



Courtesy of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce.

relief program in the northeastern States. The work on dams, irrigation systems, and highways in these areas (particularly Ceará) which have suffered from periodical droughts, should have some influence on cotton production.

5. *Government encouragement to cotton exporters.*—During the first 8 or 9 months of 1934, the Brazilian Government required cotton exporters to sell only 30 percent of their foreign exchange at an official rate, lower than the open market rate, whereas coffee exporters were

required to sell virtually all of their exchange, and exporters of commodities other than cotton and coffee, 50 percent of their exchange at the official rate. This measure, favoring the cotton-export trade, was of substantial aid in the exportation of the unusually large 1933-34 crop. At present (April),³ however, exporters of all commodities are required to sell 35 percent of their exchange at the official rate.

UTILIZATION OF COTTON

The manufacture of cotton textiles has long been an important industry in Brazil, and today ranks first among Brazil's manufacturing industries. As early as 1866, Brazil had nine textile mills, with 385 looms and 14,875 spindles, employing 766 workmen. By 1905 the country had 110 mills, with approximately 39,000 workers. Since the early 1900's the industry has grown very rapidly, and in 1920 Brazil was reported to have 242 mills with 57,200 looms and 1,521,000 spindles, employing 109,000 workers. Official statistics for 1932 show a total of 369 plants, with 126,171 looms and 2,968,175 spindles, giving employment to 118,809 workmen. The industry centers in the States of São Paulo, Minas Geraes, Rio de Janeiro, and the Federal District; about 80 percent of the spindles and looms are found in these four political units. Until 1933-34 the consumption of raw cotton exceeded production in these States, the difference having been supplied by the northeastern States.

It is estimated that from 90 to 95 percent of Brazil's cotton-textile requirements are now manufactured within the country and cloths made of fine-count yarns or specialties, such as tire fabric, are about the only goods imported. As the Brazilian cotton-textile industry becomes more completely developed, these fine fabrics and specially made goods will doubtless be supplied by the domestic industry.

As will be noted from the following table (p. 756), around 75 percent of Brazilian cotton production, or an average of 405,300 bales per annum, has been absorbed by the domestic textile industry over the period from 1921 to 1933. The expansion of the domestic textile industry is limited by law, with the object of keeping cotton textile production in line with textile consumption. Even though the limitations on textile plant expansion were removed, the indications are that domestic consumption of raw cotton would be little in excess of the 1921 to 1933 average of 405,300 bales per annum. As a result, further increases in raw cotton production may be expected to be reflected directly in the export trade. In this connection, it may be added that 1934 exports of raw cotton, following the unusually large crop of 1933-34, reached the all-time high of 584,000 bales.

³ Still in effect September 10, 1935.—EDITOR.

Brazilian cotton production, consumption, and exports, 1921-1934

[478-pound bales]

Year	Production	Domestic consumption	Exports	Year	Production	Domestic consumption	Exports
1921-----	476, 200	397, 300	90, 400	1928-----	509, 100	362, 500	46, 200
1922-----	504, 100	382, 300	156, 600	1929-----	445, 800	311, 300	224, 700
1923-----	553, 000	405, 300	88, 400	1930-----	583, 200	334, 400	140, 300
1924-----	575, 900	489, 400	29, 800	1931-----	471, 200	394, 200	93, 500
1925-----	793, 200	448, 300	141, 300	1932-----	574, 700	414, 000	2, 400
1926-----	601, 600	424, 500	77, 000	1933-----	447, 800	433, 600	53, 900
1927-----	512, 400	471, 600	55, 000	1934-----	¹ 968, 700	-----	¹ 584, 100

¹ Preliminary.

Compiled from official sources. Production data are for crop years, i. e., 1934 production figure covers the crop year 1933-34. Internal consumption and export data are according to calendar years.

OUTLOOK FOR COTTON GROWING IN BRAZIL

Brazil's advantages as a producer of cotton may be summarized as follows:

1. *Abundance of land.*—Brazil has an abundance of land that is suited to cotton production, particularly in the southern States. The total area of the four cotton-producing States in southern Brazil (São Paulo, Minas Geraes, Rio de Janeiro, and Paraná) is approximately 418,000 square miles, or almost as large as the combined area of Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas. If the two extreme southern States of Rio Grande do Sul and Santa Catharina are included, the total area of southern Brazil is 565,000 square miles, approximately equal to the area of the American cotton belt west of the Mississippi plus the States of Mississippi and Alabama.

Although much of this area is now producing coffee, corn, and other food crops, more than half of it is still virgin land, a good part of which, if cleared, would be suitable to the production of cotton, coffee, and food crops. The area officially reported as being given over to farms in these States, including land used for grazing and range purposes as well as the crop area, is less than 50 percent of the total area of this section. When the actual cultivated or crop-producing area is considered, the estimate is less than 30 percent. In the two extreme southern States of Rio Grande do Sul and Santa Catharina, the percentage of unimproved land is much higher than in the other four southern States, the land actually under cultivation in these two States probably not exceeding 10 percent of their total area. In the State of Minas Geraes, there are also extensive areas now utilized only for grazing.

It is obvious that southern Brazil, from the standpoint of available land, has tremendous possibilities for agricultural expansion. If only 5 percent of the area of the six southern States of Brazil is considered suitable to cotton production, the potential cotton area in this region may be calculated at 28,250 square miles, equivalent to 18,080,000

acres. This figure is roughly 16 times the area (1,113,000 acres) devoted to cotton in this region in 1933-34, and is equivalent to about 44 percent of the average area (41,036,000 acres) devoted to cotton in the United States in the 5-year period, 1927-31.

In the northeastern cotton-growing States, the areas in the plateau region in which cotton can be grown are limited by rainfall and transportation facilities. Without going beyond the boundaries of the present cotton-growing zone, however, acreage and production could be greatly increased by irrigation works of the type now under construction or planned by the Brazilian Government, and by highway construction.



Courtesy of the Cotton Exchange of São Paulo.

COTTON AWAITING GINNING AT SÃO PAULO.

As the 1934 crop could not be handled as rapidly as it arrived, the bags of cotton, much of it in the seed, piled up at the gins of southern Brazil.

Estimates of the Brazilian Government place the area now given over to farms (including grazing and pasture lands) in the States of Maranhão, Piauí, Ceará, Rio Grande do Norte, Paraíba, Pernambuco, Alagoas, Sergipe, and Bahia, at 139,000 square miles (88,960,000 acres), out of a total land area of 590,000 square miles, equivalent to, roughly, 24 percent of the total area of these States. The State of Pará, with a total area of 526,000 square miles, has only 38,000 square miles (24,320,000 acres), or approximately 7 percent of its total area, given over to farming and grazing.

As yet, the cotton-growing possibilities of the huge interior States of Matto Grosso, Goyaz, and Amazonas, with a total area of over

1,500,000 square miles, have not been explored, but lack of population and of transportation facilities probably eliminates them for the present as important factors in the Brazilian cotton situation.

2. *Climate*.—The climate of southern Brazil, with reference to both rainfall and temperature, is well adapted to cotton production. In the plateau districts of northeastern Brazil, temperatures are favorable to cotton production although the periodical droughts represent a serious handicap, but their effects can doubtless be overcome to some extent by irrigation, although there seems to be little likelihood of a very significant increase from irrigation within the near future.

3. *Well-established cotton industry*.—The importance of the Brazilian textile industry, ranking first among its manufacturing industries, will inevitably sustain interest in cotton-growing, even in periods of low world prices. The industry, which has offered a regular market to the local cotton producer, is responsible to a great degree for the fact that cotton is already firmly entrenched as the farmers' traditional cash crop in the plateau districts of the northeastern States and that in the southern States its importance as a secondary source of income, to supplement coffee, is becoming more and more widely recognized.

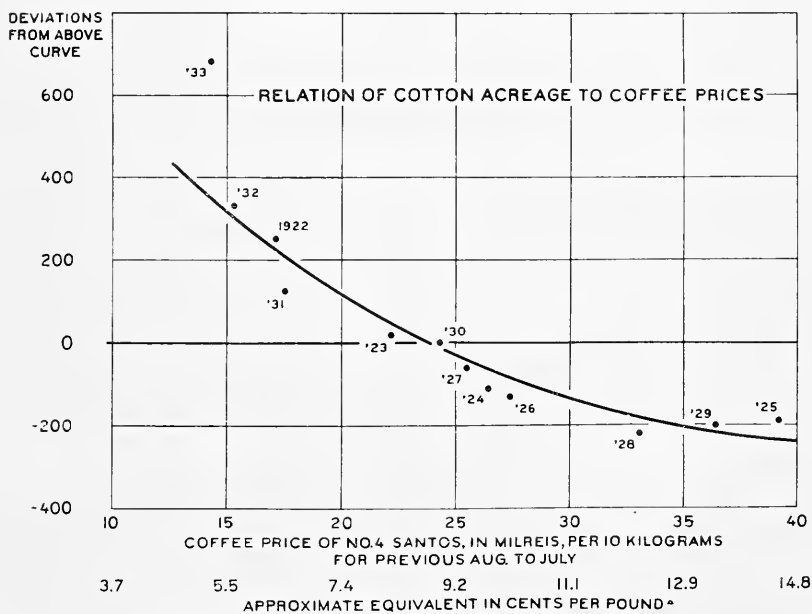
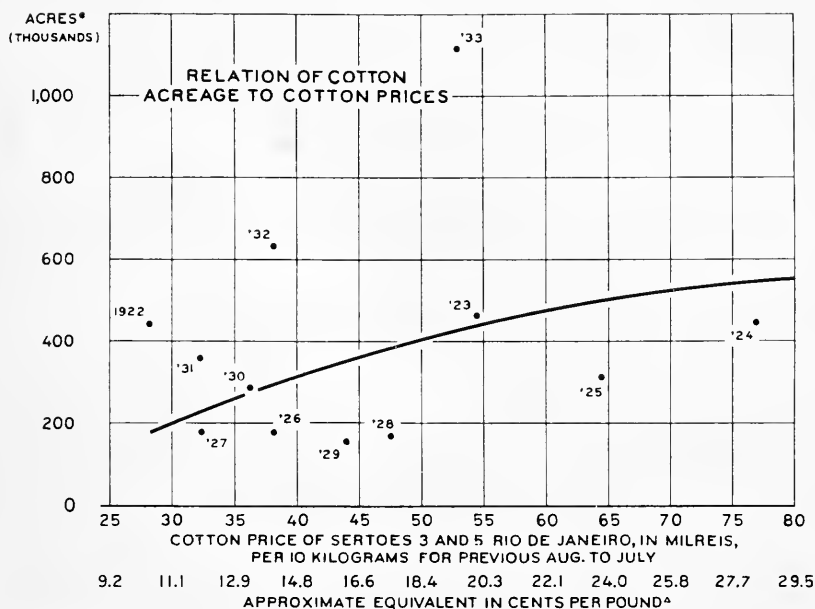
4. *Active governmental encouragement*.—Recognizing the uncertainties of a one-crop economy, it is probable that the Brazilian Government will continue actively to encourage cotton production as a means of lessening the country's dependence on one crop—coffee. This is particularly true in view of the general feeling that prospects for a substantial improvement in world coffee prices do not appear favorable at the present time.

The problems that Brazil must face as a producer of cotton may be summarized as follows:

1. *Limited labor supply*.—Although Brazil's labor supply is adequate for the areas now planted to cotton, and doubtless sufficient to provide for a substantial increase in acreage, it is clear that there is now a shortage of labor in relation to the huge undeveloped arable land areas. Moreover, additional labor is required to bring new areas under production for the first time, and in the south there is difficulty in obtaining labor during the harvest season if wages on coffee-plantations are attractive.

2. *Inadequate transportation facilities*.—In northern Brazil, and in the undeveloped areas of southern Brazil, the inadequacy of transportation facilities, particularly in the way of roads tributary to existing rail lines, represents a handicap to much further expansion in cotton production.

3. *Shortage of equipment*.—There is at present a shortage of modern ginning machinery in most of the cotton-growing regions of Brazil. This deficiency is already being remedied, however, under the stimu-



*YEAR BEGINNING AUGUST

*BASED ON FEB. 1935 EXCHANGE RATE (36.8774)

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

NEG. 29005

BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS

EFFECT OF COTTON AND COFFEE PRICES ON COTTON ACREAGE, SOUTHERN BRAZIL, 1922-23 TO 1932-33.

For the 11 years a given increase in the price of cotton in Brazil resulted, on the average, in an increase in cotton acreage in southern Brazil, unless coffee prices changed, by an amount equivalent to that shown by the slope of the upper curve. If cotton prices remained unchanged, a given increase in coffee prices tended to reduce cotton acreage by the extent indicated by the slope of the lower curve.

lus of favorable prices and an active interest on the part of both domestic and foreign capital in Brazilian cotton.

4. *Lack of production credit.*—The lack of an organized credit system for the purpose of making loans to the growers, and for the marketing and handling of the crop, is a handicap to the Brazilian cotton industry. But there appears to be ample capital in the country, aside from the foreign capital which may be attracted by the Brazilian industry, and there is already reported to be an easing in the credit situation.⁴

5. *Competition with coffee.*—In the south it is apparent that in the past cotton acreage has been to a large extent dependent on the relationship between coffee and cotton prices, with capital and labor going into the crop which appears to offer the greater return. A substantial increase in coffee prices in relation to cotton prices would probably affect cotton production in the southern States adversely, insofar as production in excess of domestic requirements is concerned. However, so far as the next few years are concerned there seems to be little prospect for any significant increase in coffee prices. The world carry-over of coffee on July 1, 1935 will probably be equivalent to one full year's consumption⁵ and all reports indicate that the 1935-36 world coffee crop will be perhaps much larger than the comparatively small crop of 1934-35, barring unusual weather conditions. It has been stated by one reliable agency that with favorable conditions the 1936-37 crop may be a bumper one.

⁴ In this connection the following resolutions of the Commerce and Transportation Section of the National Cotton Conference which met in São Paulo last April are cited:

23. The National Cotton Conference recognizes:

(a) That the increase of our cotton crop on a large scale is conditioned, within the productive capacity of the country, upon a corresponding increase in cotton exports;

(b) That the tendency of national exports of cotton, as far as can be foreseen, is upward. This probability is based on our low labor costs in comparison with those in other cotton-growing countries, on the good quality of our product and the great extent of arable land;

(c) That among the internal factors opposing this tendency are: the poor organization of agricultural credit, the deficiency of transportation in certain sections, lack of labor, the relative lack of agricultural machinery and knowledge of modern methods of agriculture on the part of farmers, the lack of good seed, and the possibility of trying out other crops.

29. The National Cotton Conference recommends that the following urgent measures, among others, should be taken for developing and perfecting cotton production:

(a) Equip and improve present experiment stations, and when this has been done create new zones where stations may be necessary;

(b) Improve the service for supplying good seed to cotton growers, increasing the fields for growing seed;

(c) Facilitate in every way possible the installation in Brazil of complete establishments for ginning and baling;

(d) Promote the use of tractors and agricultural machinery, fertilizers and insecticides, maintaining at convenient points stocks of these articles to be furnished to farmers at moderate prices;

(e) Prevent the operation of ginning and baling establishments which do not satisfy the proper technical requirements;

(f) Give as much expert assistance as possible to workers, teaching them modern methods of cultivation;

(g) Provide facilities for agricultural credit;

(h) Move for the reduction of railway and maritime freights on cotton.

(From "O Estado de São Paulo," April 27, 1935.)—EDITOR.

⁵ The New York Coffee and Sugar Exchange gives the world carry-over of coffee on July 1, 1935, as 23,520,413 bags. Consumption for 1930-31 was 25,148,175 bags; 1931-32, for 23,728,000 bags; for 1932-33, 22,850,000 bags; for 1933-34, 24,452,000; and for 1934-35, 22,680,000 bags.—EDITOR.

A weighting of the favorable factors against the unfavorable and an examination of the past trends in both sections of Brazil seem to indicate that while acreage and production may vary from year to year and with low yields may drop back well below the high level of the current season, the trend will continue upward, particularly in the southern States. The rate of increase will of course be affected by cotton prices (both actual and relative) in Brazil, but the trend should be very much less pronounced than during the last two years even if cotton prices should be comparatively high during the next several years.

On the basis of the average response of acreage to price changes in southern Brazil during the 11 years 1922-23 to 1932-33, it would be expected that with no change in the price of coffee a change in cotton prices from 10 to 15 cents (at the current ratio of cotton prices in Brazil to domestic prices) might be expected to result in a change of a little less than 200,000 acres in the cotton area of southern Brazil. In the last two years, however, such factors as (1) legal restrictions on the planting of coffee trees, (2) more active effort on the part of the Government to encourage cotton production, due in part to the desire to develop another important export crop to supplement coffee, (3) the increasing interest of foreign and domestic capital in Brazilian cotton production, and (4) perhaps the lingering effects of the extremely high prices of cotton in Brazil in 1932-33 have resulted in a much larger cotton acreage in southern Brazil than might have been expected from past relationships. Therefore, it seems not unlikely that cotton acreage in southern Brazil might increase still further even if cotton prices in Brazil decline considerably during the next few years. A price of 10 cents in the United States would, at the current ratio of cotton prices in Brazil to domestic prices, reduce the Brazilian price of cotton about 13 percent, which would tend to reduce the rate of expansion. Under such conditions, a price of 15 cents in the United States would result in an increase of about 30 percent in Brazilian cotton prices over the current levels and 50 percent over what it might be at 10-cent domestic prices.

In addition to the outlook for an upward trend in the total acreage and production in Brazil, another factor which is significant from the standpoint of competition with American cotton is the trend in the quality of Brazilian cotton. During the last few years cotton production in the southern States, where most of the crop is of American upland varieties, has increased from an average of about one-fourth of the total to more than half of the entire Brazilian crop, and the prospects are that this region may continue to produce a larger and larger proportion of the total. In addition the systems of seed

control and gin regulation seem likely to further improve the quality of Brazilian cotton.⁶

⁶ The following tables of exports of raw cotton from Brazil, published in "Foreign Crops and Markets" for September 9, 1935, are of interest:

INTERNATIONAL TRADE IN COTTON IN 1934-35

Brazil: Exports of raw cotton by months, average 1923-24 to 1932-33, August 1933-July 1935

[1 bale=478 pounds net]

Month	Average, 1923-24 to 1932-33	1933-34	1934-35	Month	Average, 1934-24 to 1932-33	1933-34	1934-35
	<i>1,000 bales</i>	<i>1,000 bales</i>	<i>1,000 bales</i>		<i>1,000 bales</i>	<i>1,000 bales</i>	<i>1,000 bales</i>
August.....	4	3	68	March.....	4	20	43
September.....	9	5	57	April.....	2	21	39
October.....	13	9	92	May.....	3	44	36
November.....	15	23	69	June.....	3	47	-----
December.....	15	10	75	July.....	3	37	-----
January.....	10	27	46	Total.....	86	273	-----
February.....	5	27	78				

Foreign Agricultural Service Division. Compiled from Commercio Exterior do Brasil (Monthly). Bureau of Agricultural Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture.

Brazil: Exports of raw cotton to specified countries, January-July 1935

[1 bale=478 pounds net]

Year and month	Germany	United Kingdom	France	Belgium	Japan	Other countries	Total
	<i>1,000 bales</i>	<i>1,000 bales</i>	<i>1,000 bales</i>	<i>1,000 bales</i>	<i>1,000 bales</i>	<i>1,000 bales</i>	<i>1,000 bales</i>
1935							
January.....	16	17	5	2	-----	6	46
February.....	49	15	6	5	-----	3	78
March.....	32	7	1	1	-----	2	43
April.....	30	3	3	2	-----	1	39
May.....	22	5	3	2	2	2	36
June.....	35	16	6	2	5	10	74
July.....	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----

Foreign Agricultural Service Division. Compiled from Consular Reports submitted by Rudolf E. Cabn, Vice Consul, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.—EDITOR.

TROUT FISHING IN THE TROPICS¹

RAINBOW TROUT IN THE RÍO CHIRIQUÍ VIEJO, PANAMA

By SAMUEL F. HILDEBRAND, D. Sc.

Senior Ichthyologist, Bureau of Fisheries, United States Department of Commerce

REPORTS giving glowing accounts of a very successful introduction of rainbow trout in the upper course of the Río Chiriquí Viejo, situated in extreme southwestern Panama, have reached the United States Bureau of Fisheries during recent years. It seemed desirable, therefore, to obtain first hand information concerning the ecological conditions prevailing in this stream that brought about the excellent results. Such information would serve as a guide in determining the fitness for the support of trout of other streams within tropical America.

Americans have been attracted to the uplands of the Province of Chiriquí for some years by the cool pleasant climate in contrast with the warm humid atmosphere of the Canal Zone, as well as by the fertile land. The American settlers and property owners were successful in about 1924 in interesting the American minister to Panama in the possibility of establishing trout in the streams of the vicinity.

Upon the request of the American minister, through diplomatic channels, the United States Commissioner of Fisheries detailed Fred J. Foster, an expert fish culturist, to make an inspection of the Río Chiriquí Viejo to determine if the conditions were suitable for trout. Mr. Foster found the temperature sufficiently low above an elevation of about 4,000 to 4,500 feet, and the stream in other respects also seemed suitable. Thereupon, he recommended the introduction of rainbow trout. Accordingly in 1925 a lot of 2,500 eggs was sent by the Bureau of Fisheries.

The eggs were secured from an eastern hatchery and were shipped to New York by rail; from there they were sent to the Canal Zone by boat; and from there to Volcán, Chiriquí, by airplane. En route the eggs were of course kept cool with ice. As no hatching trough or other facilities were available for incubating the eggs on the Río Chiriquí Viejo, they were merely buried to a depth of an inch or so in sand and gravel in comparatively quiet places in the stream, and there at least some of them hatched.

¹ Published by permission of the U. S. Commissioner of Fisheries.

For four or five years the fish were not seen. Then some inquisitive sportsman began angling and succeeded in catching trout. Ever since that time anglers have gone from the Canal Zone to Chiriquí to fish for trout.

As already indicated, the Río Chiriquí Viejo is situated in the extreme southwestern corner of the Republic of Panama in the Province of Chiriquí. The lower course of the stream lies in a comparatively flat country, and as seen from an airplane it is rather winding. It is no doubt quite sluggish in the lowlands, as the maps indicate two mouths. From an elevation of about 5,000 to 7,000 feet, or a distance of about 10 miles, the stream was seen by the writer on foot, as well



Photograph by Samuel F. Hildebrand.

THE RÍO CHIRIQUÍ VIEJO AT 6,000 FEET.

In the higher altitudes numerous rapids are formed in the river by rocks and log jams. An excellent trout hole exists just below the rapids in the foreground.

as from the air. Here its course is not especially winding, but still far from straight.

The average width of the stream bed in the section examined on foot probably is about 35 to 40 feet from bank to bank. Although the river was examined during the dry season, it evidently was not at its lowest stage. It is certain, however, that it always has ample water for the welfare of the trout. The river, also, has several tributaries of fair size, which appear to be especially valuable for protection for the young and smaller trout from the older and larger ones.

The river bed is mostly quite rocky, the size of the rocks varying from gravel to large boulders. In places log jams and drift wood also

are present. There is little smooth bottom and collecting with a seine is nearly impossible. The larger tributaries are equally as rocky as the main stream.

The current is quite swift, and the roar of the stream may be heard a long distance. However, between the rapids comparatively large deep pools generally are present, making good hiding and resting places for the trout.

During the time (February 3 to 6) spent at Mr. Lewis' camp a check was kept on the temperature. There, at an elevation of about 6,000 feet, the temperature of the water in the river was 54° F. each morning at 7 o'clock, and each evening between 5 and 6 o'clock it was 57° F. Each morning the water and air temperatures were equal within one degree. However, of evenings the air was from 15 to 20 degrees warmer than the water. Every day was clear. Consequently, the tropical sun exerted its maximum influence. Presumably, the water is no warmer during the rainy season. Possibly it is cooler, as there is less sunshine. It is evident, therefore, that the water is amply cool for trout, at and above an altitude of 6,000 feet and for some distance below it.² According to information given by anglers, the trout do not descend the river far below an elevation of 4,000 feet.

That trout are quite numerous in the Río Chiriquí Viejo in the sections of the stream examined is obvious from the liberal catches made by anglers, and from collections and observations made by the writer. It was noticed several times that an angler would return with from 8 to 12 fish after fishing for an hour or so. Furthermore, small trout were common in the quiet shallow coves where, presumably, they were seeking protection from larger trout, for they have virtually no other enemies in the stream. It was reliably reported that two Americans desiring to make a test of how many trout could be taken during a whole day's fishing succeeded in catching 200 fish. Another American, who lives on the banks of the river, claims to be so certain of catching a trout within a few minutes' time that he often puts his skillet on the stove to heat while he goes to the river to catch a fish for his breakfast. It may be concluded, from the observations made and the many reports of large catches, that trout are quite numerous in the Río Chiriquí Viejo above an altitude of perhaps 4,000 to 4,500 feet.

² Air temperature records kept by Mr. R. G. Lewis at his camp at an elevation of about 6,000 feet during 1934 and part of 1935, kindly placed at the writer's disposal by him, show that the fluctuations are not great. Since the air temperatures do not fluctuate greatly it is certain that the temperature of the water is fairly constant throughout the year. The lowest temperature of the air during 1934 was 37° F., which occurred some time during the first three months of the year when daily records were not kept. The highest temperature for the same period of time was 75° F. During the remainder of 1934, for which more definite records are available, the lowest temperature reached was 40° F., which occurred in June, and the highest 79° F. reached during three successive months; namely, October, November, and December. The lowest average minimum temperature for any one month during the nine months of 1934 for which records are available, is 50.3° F. for April, and the highest is 53.7° F. for September. The average maximum temperatures for the same period of time range from 66.4° F. in April to 73° F. in September. The lowest temperature reached during January and February 1935 was 41° F.

The fish that were caught during my visit by anglers were not large, as they ranged in length from about 8 to 12 inches. A few larger ones were seen in the river by me, and individuals up to 23 inches in length were reported by anglers.

Since my return from Panama Mr. R. G. Lewis has sent a photograph of a large trout taken in the Río Chiriquí Viejo at an altitude of about 6,000 feet 25½ inches in total length, weighing 5¼ pounds. This fish has been mounted and is on exhibition in Mr. Lewis' store in Panama city. It is evident, therefore, that some of the trout attain a large size.



Photograph by Samuel F. Hildebrand.

AIR VIEW OF THE LOWER RÍO CHIRIQUÍ VIEJO.

Its slow meandering course is in sharp contrast with its precipitousness in the uplands. The temperature of the stream in the lowlands is of course too high for trout to endure.

One of the principal objects of my visit to the Río Chiriquí Viejo was to ascertain on what the trout feed and the probable abundance of the food. Such information is regarded as especially desirable in determining whether other streams in the tropics are suitable for the support of trout. Accordingly, observations and collections were made in the main stream and some of its tributaries, and the stomachs and intestines of 45 adult trout were preserved and later examined in the laboratory. Also, the stomachs of 6 young trout, ranging in length from 19 to 51 mm, were examined.

No native fish are present. Therefore, the trout do not feed on fish, except as they sometimes may feed on each other. They exist

principally, as shown by the contents of 51 stomachs, on insects, taking occasionally in addition a few ostracods and amphipods.

Spawning apparently takes place principally during November and December, though limited spawning extends over a much longer period of time.

The opportunity to make an inspection and to gain first hand information relative to the ecological conditions obtaining in the Río Chiriquí Viejo came to the writer through the generosity of Dr. Herbert C. Clark, director of the Gorgas Memorial Laboratory, Panama City, during a recent visit to the Panama Canal Zone. Accordingly the period extending from February 2 to 8, 1935, was devoted to the investigation. The writer is indebted, also, to Mr. R. G. Lewis of Panama city for making all arrangements for the airplane flight to the vicinity and for the use of his camp on the banks of the river during most of the investigation. Thanks are due, likewise, to Mr. W. H. W. Komp of the United States Public Health Service, who was a member of the party, for very helpful assistance, and to Dr. T. W. Earhart, chief surgeon at the Gorgas Hospital, Ancon, Canal Zone, for preserving trout stomachs for examination. Without the co-operation of these gentlemen the investigation could not have been made.



Photograph by Marcel J. Bussard.

THE MOUNTAINOUS REGION OF THE UPPER CHIRIQUÍ VIEJO.

For a distance of about 15 miles the river borders the volcanic plain at the foot of the heavily forested cordillera.

SPAIN AS A COLONIZER¹

By R. G. TUGWELL, Ph.D., LL.D.

Under Secretary of Agriculture of the United States

FROM the outset of the Conquest the Spaniards began the great task of transplanting their culture to the New World, and of course the basic element of that culture was the art of farming.

From the first efforts were made to transplant agriculture in a very practical manner. In 1524 Cortez wrote his sovereign asking him to give orders that no ship should sail to America without bringing its cargo of plants and seeds. Said Cortez, "I have also explained to Your Caesarian Majesty the need for plants of all kinds; for every species of agriculture may flourish here; but nothing has been so far provided, and I again pray Your Majesty to order a provision from the Casa de Contratación at Seville, so that no ship be allowed to sail without bringing a certain number of plants which would favor the population and prosperity of the country." Columbus on his second voyage brought animals for breeding purposes and seeds and slips and plants. This example was followed by subsequent explorers and conquistadores and the domestic pig, sheep, dog, goat, rabbit, and horse were among some of the animals imported. As early as 1495, jacks, jennets, mares, cattle, pigs, sheep, rice, millet, farm laborers and gardeners, millwrights and blacksmiths were brought. Wheat, grapes, olives, sugar cane, date palms, figs, and pomegranates were transported to the New World, as well as apples, pears, plums, peaches, apricots, quinces, mulberries, oranges, limes and lemons, all before the year of the first English settlement in North America.

Not only did Spain bring in plants and seeds from the mother country but from the other countries of the Old World, and one great authority has said that during the time of colonization no European power was spending more on agriculture than Spain. I should like here to say something about other contributions made by Spain in mining, in institutions of government, in religion, in exploration, but at best I should be rephrasing knowledge common to you all. The Spanish built the first cities, schools and churches. They brought the first printing presses and made the first books. They wrote the first dictionary, history, and geography. They transplanted here some of the best attributes of the Old World civilization generations before the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth Rock, and three Spanish universities in the New World were rounding out a century of cultured existence before Harvard College was founded.

¹ Excerpt from commencement address of Dr. R. G. Tugwell, Under Secretary of Agriculture, at the University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, June 10, 1935.

MAKING BUSINESS CONTACTS IN THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

By WILLIAM A. REID

Foreign Trade Adviser, Pan American Union

A STEADY movement of samples of interesting commodities from Latin American countries flows into the Pan American Union. These articles are highly diversified and some of them are unusually interesting and novel—novel, of course, to those unfamiliar with products originating in some of the more remote parts of American nations.

Before the writer stands a bottle half filled with a thick, red liquid. Shake the bottle and a beautiful foamy substance covers the inside of the glass. This fluid, in the language of the unromantic trader, is simply "dragon's blood." We are not here concerned with the botanical origin of the tree that produces this valuable article nor with the chemical substances comprised in this sap. Samples of dragon's blood, shipped from equatorial jungles, were submitted to a number of United States manufacturers; at least two concerns expressed their interest in receiving trial shipments with which to experiment. Some chemists believe it can be more extensively used in paints and varnishes, floor coverings, and composition materials.

A gentleman calls and presents a card indicating his connection with an organization in this country that consumes quantities of hardwood each year. Says he, "I am looking for supplies of cedar lumber. Cedar-lined presses for the modern home are now popular and often demanded by the prospective purchaser; cedar chests are handled in vast numbers by our department stores; the need for cedar in pencil-making also creates a big demand for this particular wood, which is becoming somewhat scarce in the United States. Our company wishes to get in touch with some lumber concerns that might supply a regular flow of cedar. Do you know of any such enterprises?"

The caller was informed of lumbering operations in certain parts of Latin America where cedar exists in commercial quantities and is being exploited. But the exploitation has been somewhat limited by lack of regular demand. In this particular case the consumer in the United States was brought into contact with the producer in a Latin American country. Prices, mutual agreements, quality and

quantity were next under consideration between the parties; result, trial orders were placed which at last accounts were proving mutually satisfactory.

An assortment of oil-producing nuts from wild regions was received from an exporter at Manaos, Brazil. It included "the light of the



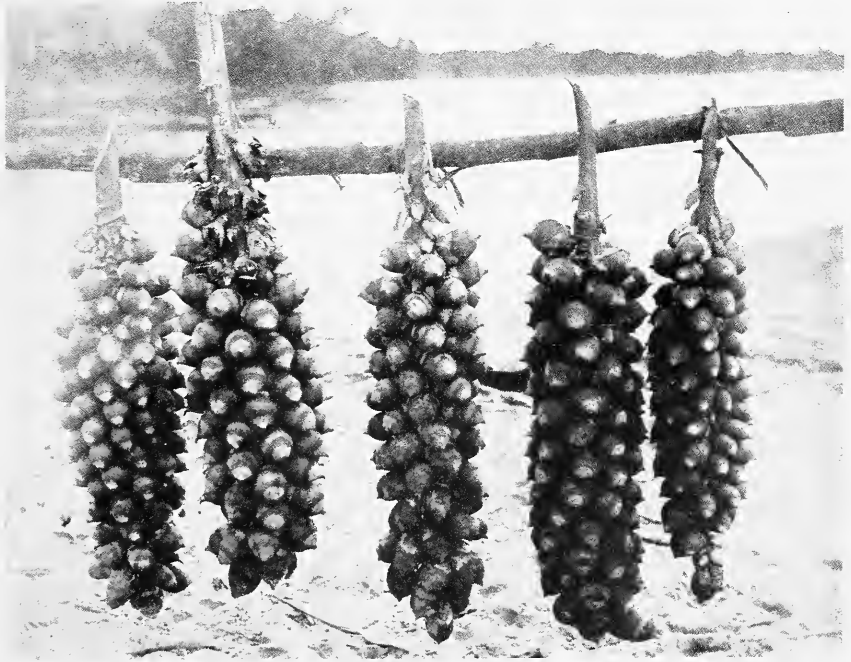
A BRAZILIAN CEDAR
TREE.

The great demand for cedar in the United States has been an incentive for bringing it from South American forests.

jungle," a peculiar small nut which when ignited will burn for some time with a light comparable to that of an ordinary candle. While natives in the wilds may use this nut for lighting purposes, the far-seeing industrialist in this country is beginning to extract oil from it. This product is of far more value than the flickering light. Some of the larger nuts in the collection are somewhat better known. By chance a business man saw these products on display. Becoming

interested, he later formed a company and, after making arrangements with national and local officials, dispatched men and machinery to the tropical jungle where these nuts are plentiful. In the field native laborers were employed and operations begun in what some day may be a great industry.

It is not often that a woman from a United States metropolis finds a business opportunity in one of the earth's remote regions. But a cultured woman happened to come to the Pan American Union



BABASSÚ NUTS.

The babassú is one of the most valuable of the tropical oil-producing nuts, which are plentiful in Brazil. Modern industry is finding an increasing number of uses for babassú oil.

for information in regard to a voyage into Amazonia. Having been a world traveler, she had grown tired of big cities and crowds of people. "Ship me to the wilds," said she, "but first give me an idea of what I may experience or expect in the Amazon country." She was supplied with the requisite information and personal suggestions. Six months passed. One day an expressman delivered a package—a box of lumber in small slabs. The woman who had called to ask about the Amazon country had reached Manaus, a thousand miles up-stream from the ocean. She was pleased with her trip; she was taking the liberty of sending 20 specimens of local woods

to Washington. These samples were shown to manufacturers of lumber products, some of whom became interested. For at least two varieties there was a market in the United States—balsa and cedar. The first is used in parts of airplanes and in refrigerating apparatus, while the increasing shortage of cedar in the United States is well known.

From Bolivia came liberal samples of cubes of isinglass. In a long letter the owner of the mines explained his facilities for shipping isinglass in commercial quantities. He desired a market in the United States, for he believed this country could easily consume the output of his properties.

Like other incoming samples, the isinglass was divided into a number of pieces and one of these sent with a letter of explanation to stove manufacturers who, it was thought, might be in a position to consume more of this material. It was found that at least two firms were willing to place trial orders with the mine, and at last accounts one manufacturer is still importing Bolivian isinglass.

A man bearing marks of exposure to sun and storm is relating some of his adventures in an isolated mining region of southern Colombia. He opens a wallet and places on the desk a dozen golden fish hooks—fish hooks made of crude gold by native people. "Workers on our properties," said the visitor, "needing hooks of one kind or another with which to catch fish from the streams, and not having ordinary steel hooks, resort to the home-made article which they crudely form from gold nuggets. Since we took over the properties, however, we discouraged such waste of a most valuable metal. We supply ordinary fishing hooks and tackle to the men and watch every speck of gold that is found. I merely exhibit these articles for your information. Dredges are now operating along the larger streams of our properties and we believe a promising future lies ahead of these activities."

The visitor who made the above remarks hails from Baltimore; before his first trip to Colombia he made a careful study of the gold mining possibilities in that country. "I found the reports not the least exaggerated," said he, "and after weeks of field investigations and conferences with Colombian officials we decided to purchase properties and embark on the uncertain yet often pleasant work of hunting gold by modern processes."

Down in the Ecuadorean Andes there grows a delicious but little-used fruit. When ripe it has the appearance of a small orange; the skin is thick and leathery, but within this covering there is juicy pulp

in which are imbedded numerous seeds somewhat like those of the tomato. This fruit is commonly called *naranjilla*, or little orange. The botanist, however, knows it by the name of *Solanum quitense*. Today a new factory in Riobamba is making both a soft drink and an extract from this fruit and the output of the establishment is known as *naranjilla*. In bottled form the beverage is being placed in local markets. It is refreshing, non-alcoholic and pleasant in flavor, which seems to be a combination of peach, orange and lime—lime predominating. Ecuadoreans use *naranjilla* extract to flavor ice cream,



NARANJILLA PLANT.

This plant, which is native to Ecuador, produces a delicious fruit whose flavor seems to be a blend of peach, orange, and lime. Beverages and extracts have been made from the fruit, which is said to have valuable tonic properties.

punches, and cocktails or, in diluted form, enjoy it as a refreshing beverage. By reason of its digestive properties the juice is said to be valuable as a tonic. With samples of this beverage came the request that the company be informed as to sales possibilities in the United States. In this particular case, owing to the distance of Ecuador from the proposed market and the innumerable beverages already being sold in this country, it was thought best to suggest that the hot dry coastal regions of Peru and Chile might offer an inviting market, and that the possibilities of sales there be studied.

"Will you please give me the names of any firms in the United States that are in a position to supply *cuyas* and *bombillas* in wholesale quantities? We have need for them immediately."

These lines came in a hurried request from a Los Angeles merchant who has placed yerba maté on sale and whose orders have been growing. The people of California, it would seem, are not satisfied to sip maté from a china cup, but demand the fancy gourd and the "straw"—often of silver or of gold—that are universally used in South America for this beverage. Importers have found that the increased consumption of maté in this country is reflected in a greater demand for the native utensils.



A HENEQUEN PLANTATION.

Henequen, or sisal, is one of the valuable fiber-producing plants native to Latin America.

Recently a liberal sample of pita, a fiber that grows wild in the tropics, was received with an inquiry as to the possible market for it in the United States. The company in Ecuador that submitted the sample said that at least 85 tons were available for immediate exportation and that larger supplies could be provided whenever the foreign market called for this commodity. The sample was cut into about a dozen pieces which were submitted to well-known manufacturers of cordage, floor mats, and hammocks. At least two of the companies addressed replied that they were interested in securing quantities of pita for experimental purposes and, if the fiber proved strong and workable so that it could be woven into the several classes of goods manufactured by their concerns, they would consider the purchase of regular consignments.



MAHOGANY LOGGING IN CENTRAL AMERICA.

One of the best-known American woods is mahogany, much in demand for fine furniture.



SAMPLES OF WOOD FROM VENEZUELA.

The forests of Venezuela and of other South American countries are supplying the United States with a wide variety of valuable woods.

One of the largest commodities the Union has been called upon to help place is the dwelling house. Now that homes are manufactured on a large scale, knocked down, and shipped to all points in the United States, the idea occurred to a prominent South American that the summer home he wished to construct could be purchased in the United States. So he sent an outline of his needs, was put in touch with the proper firms, and now he and his family, in another American country, are doubtless enjoying the ready-built house that came from over the sea.

Some years ago, after an earthquake in Central America had destroyed hundreds of homes, a cablegram was received stating that large numbers of houses were urgently and quickly needed. Within a few days the agent of a manufacturer of ready-built houses was en route to the region. Upon his arrival, he presented illustrations of the houses he had to offer; an order on a wholesale scale was given, and within a few weeks many a homeless native found himself and his family living in a new house from the United States.

One of the most important contacts ever made by the Union was begun at a conference with the Director General and then transferred to the commercial office. More than a decade ago a representative of a great manufacturing corporation came to ask preliminary questions about conditions and possibilities of an enterprise being established in an undeveloped region of South America. An hour or so was given to this caller; he returned another day with three additional representatives of his company. Later, the Union's librarian was called on for service; and in turn books and laws and translations of laws were placed before these gentlemen. They studied and pondered; they then sought the diplomatic representative of the country where the land in question was located. "Inviting possibilities for a big enterprise seem to lie ahead", said one of these men. The next move of the company was to dispatch an agent to the South American country. Once on the ground, and encouraged by government officials, this man finally obtained land and other concessions. The big deal approved, operations started in the jungle and raw materials are now flowing therefrom to several factories in the United States. Success crowned well-planned and serious effort and those of us who recall initial investigations feel glad to have had at least an infinitesimal part in the beginning of a great inter-American development enterprise.

Occasionally it happens that certain samples of material submitted to the Union are not salable in the United States. Everyone knows, of course, that tile roofing and floors are features of home and office

construction all over Latin America. And much of this product is superior in quality and beautiful in design.

Hoping for a possible sale outlet in the United States, an enterprising manufacturer in Central America supplied the office with a varied assortment of well-made tile, which was available for shipment in quantity. Conference with architects and builders showed that the high cost of freight and the weight of the tile made competition with the domestic product impossible.

Likewise demand was found to be nonexistent for an iron oxide sent from one of the West Coast countries of South America. Deposits of this mineral in the United States, according to scientific investigation, are sufficient to last this country a long period.

The foregoing pages may serve to indicate the diversity of Latin American products whose manufacturers or exploiters are seeking new or wider markets. The examples also reflect the increasing numbers of contacts between exploiters and possible markets. Each one, infinitesimal as the effort entailed may be, is on the whole a worthy builder of commerce—and the development of commerce is one of the foundation stones upon which this organization of Republics has been functioning for many years.



RESULTS OF THE BUENOS AIRES COMMERCIAL CONFERENCE

By H. GERALD SMITH

Chief, Section of Financial Information, Pan American Union

THE Pan American Commercial Conference of Buenos Aires held its final meeting on June 19 last, having been in session since May 26. Each of the 21 Republics, members of the Pan American Union, was represented. Four conventions were adopted: on the repression of smuggling; on the creation of a Pan American tourist passport and of a transit passport for vehicles; on the transit of airplanes; and on the creation of Pan American commercial committees. These conventions are now to be submitted to the various governments for ratification. In addition to the conventions, the conference adopted 61 recommendations on a wide variety of subjects, a number of which were added to the original agenda after the conference opened. The following pages summarize the conventions and recommendations adopted.

CONVENTION ON THE REPRESSION OF SMUGGLING

This convention provides that each of the contracting parties shall cooperate to the fullest extent possible with the others, in exchanging information of value in the prevention of smuggling or in the apprehension of smugglers; that in ports and on the banks of frontier rivers, all foreign merchandise not nationalized shall be stored in government warehouses under the direct control or immediate supervision of the customs authorities, until it is dispatched for public consumption, reexported, or dispatched in transit. It is further stated that any accumulation of national or nationalized merchandise in frontier zones outside of recognized ports or centers of one country shall be considered evidence that smuggling into the adjoining one is being contemplated. The latter nation may demand, upon the presentation of a written detailed statement, that the former put such goods under the supervision of its customs authorities.

CONVENTION ON A PAN AMERICAN TOURIST PASSPORT AND A TRANSIT PASSPORT FOR VEHICLES

This convention defines the term "tourist" and provides for the elimination by each signatory of taxes on tourists, and for the creation and adoption of the Pan American tourist passport. Each contracting

state shall have the right to issue this passport, in either individual or collective form, to its native-born or naturalized citizens, or to the citizens of other American countries after fulfillment of certain formalities. The passport is to be issued free of charge.

Other features of this convention include provisions for special visa services; the right of the government of the country visited to retain the passport during the tourist's sojourn, a certificate to take the place of the passport until the tourist is ready to leave the country; and the establishment by each country of offices for the promotion of tourist travel.

That portion of the convention dealing with the transit of vehicles of tourists provides that bicycles, motorcycles, automobiles, and airplanes being used by their owners or which accompany them for later use are to be admitted tax-free; scientific instruments, equipment for the arts and professions, as well as sporting equipment for tournament use, are to be admitted free; vehicles may remain in the country visited as long as their owners; and special insignia may be issued for the vehicles admitted under the terms of this passport.

The United States refrained from signing this convention, because its governmental organization prevents it from entering into agreements of such a nature. The statement was made, however, to the effect that the United States was willing to enter immediately into bilateral agreements with other countries with a view to giving effect to the spirit of the convention.

The Dominican Republic also made a reservation to the convention, as its legislation does not permit it to consider a person traveling on business as a tourist.

CONVENTION ON AIRPLANE TRANSIT

This convention provides that there shall be no taxes or duties of any kind on the movement of airplanes, except those required to cover actual services rendered at airports. Control formalities are to be limited to the minimum, and only a single document containing required information regarding passengers and crews is to be demanded of commercial air lines operating in the contracting countries.

CONVENTION FOR THE CREATION OF PAN AMERICAN COMMERCIAL COMMITTEES

This convention provides for the organization in each country of a Pan American Commercial Committee, as a branch of the Pan American Union and subordinate to that organization, which committees are to have the triple function of cooperating with the Union in all matters of interest to American commerce; of serving as a means of coordination for the interchange of commercial information

between the countries, members of the Pan American Union; and of encouraging in each country the establishment of permanent exhibits of the products of the other nations.

The proposed committees are to be composed of representatives of both government and private business—including commerce, agriculture, industry, and stock raising. The Pan American Union is to draw up uniform regulations to govern the activities of the committees, especially in coordinating the work of these groups with that of the Union.

The work of the Commercial Committees, as described in the convention, promises to be of great importance. The information to be exchanged between the Pan American countries includes data on such widely diversified subjects as prices; communications; the exchange situation; statistics; trade marks; customs procedure and shipping information; and in general all material which may be useful in promoting inter-American commerce.

RECOMMENDATIONS AND DECLARATIONS

The Commercial Conference adopted 61 recommendations or declarations of policy, covering a wide variety of subjects. These included such general topics as customs or consular regulations; port facilities; animal and vegetable sanitary measures; aerial, land and water transportation; tourist travel; commercial arbitration; and a number of other miscellaneous questions. Lack of space prevents detailed discussion of all the recommendations adopted: therefore only a few of the more important will be considered under the general headings outlined above.

CUSTOMS AND CONSULAR REGULATIONS AND PORT FACILITIES

An important recommendation adopted under this heading, entitled "Modification of Port Dues", laid down the following principles: port dues should never acquire the character of duties, but should rather be based on the actual cost of the services rendered; it is desirable to have as uniform port dues as possible throughout the Americas; various types of port dues should be consolidated into a single charge per net register ton; port dues should be levied uniformly, except for allowances for the national merchant marine; and regulations should be adopted for expediting the issuance of certificates of "pratique" and "bills of health", and fees for these services should be as moderate as possible.

Another recommendation under this heading provides that the countries, members of the Pan American Union, should as far as possible immediately adopt the recommendations on consular procedure of the committee of experts appointed by the Union, which were

approved by the Commercial Conference. The conference further recommended that the Pan American Union should appoint another committee of five experts to draft a convention on the simplification of customs, port, and consular procedure. This convention is to be studied by the various governments prior to its submission to the Eighth International Conference of American States at Lima, Peru.

ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE SANITARY REGULATIONS

The Commercial Conference adopted ten recommendations under this general heading. These included a recommendation that official information on the sanitary condition of plants and animals and on control measures taken and results obtained should be published periodically by the American Governments; that the Second Inter-American Agricultural Conference should determine the basic principles to be adopted by the American Republics for the establishment of foreign quarantines on agricultural products; and that in any agreements concluded on the sanitary control of plant products in transit, certain basic principles should be applied, with the object of preventing the spread of insect pests or communicable diseases.

Further recommendations dealt with provisions for visits by foreign experts belonging to animal and plant sanitary services; the possibility of making livestock vaccination obligatory in the American Republics, and the suitability and usefulness of taking other measures to control diseases in animals in inter-American commerce; and regulations to be enforced by countries through which cattle pass in transit.

The conference also resolved that, on the basis of proposals made by the Uruguayan, Peruvian, and Brazilian delegations, the governing board of the Pan American Union should draft a convention on the inter-American organization of animal and plant sanitary officials, to be included in the agenda of the Second Inter-American Agricultural Conference; and recommended that facilities be accorded for the study of plant and animal diseases, and that the American countries prohibit the exportation or importation of plants and animals suffering from disease.

TRANSPORTATION

The Commercial Conference adopted 14 recommendations on means of transportation, covering land, water and aerial communication.

In the case of general railway policies, the conference recommended the establishment of national committees in the countries, members of the Pan American Union, to cooperate with an international committee, to be appointed by the Union, on the unification of laws and

regulations in different countries concerning railway transport, and on the preparation of a draft convention on railway transportation. A recommendation along the general lines of that adopted with respect to railway transportation was adopted on the subject of highway communications. In another resolution, the work of the Pan American Railway Committee was approved and the recommendation was made that the various governments pursue studies looking toward eventual linking of the continental countries by rail.

On the subject of communication by water, a recommendation was adopted which urged the conclusion of bilateral or multilateral conventions creating what would be known as a Pan American Merchant Marine, by which not more than two ships designated by each country would be afforded in the other countries the same status as ships engaged in national coastwise trade. To obtain such advantages, the vessels designated would have to fulfill certain duties regarding nationality, routes and the carrying of samples of the products of the American countries. Cuba, Peru and the United States abstained from voting on this recommendation, and Brazil presented a reservation.

On the question of aerial transportation, the action of the Commercial Conference consisted principally of calling to the attention of the governments of the American countries the desirability of taking definite action upon a number of conventions on various phases of aerial navigation which had been signed at Pan American and European conferences. Steps were also taken to change the meeting place of the forthcoming inter-American aviation conference from Panama city to Lima, Peru, this conference to be convened at as early a date as possible.

TOURIST TRAVEL

As indicated by the signing of a convention at the Buenos Aires Commercial Conference looking toward the promotion of inter-American tourist travel, this subject was of considerable importance on the agenda of the meeting. In addition to the convention, a number of recommendations were adopted, including those upon the definition of the term "immigrant", to which reservations were presented by Cuba, the Dominican Republic and Venezuela; on measures to control the movement of persons while in transit through a country; on the simplification or elimination of passport formalities; on the further development of tourist travel propaganda by the Pan American Union; and on encouragement to banking establishments to increase the use of travelers' checks.

COMMERCIAL ARBITRATION

The recommendation on commercial arbitration adopted by the Commercial Conference furthered the resolution on the subject adopted at the Seventh International Conference of American States, which met at Montevideo. The Buenos Aires recommendation featured two points: that the Governments, members of the Pan American Union, should further the work of the Inter-American Commercial Arbitration Commission; and that the governments should endeavor to secure legislation to compel the signatories of a clause accepting arbitration to comply therewith, and accept the arbitration award as final.

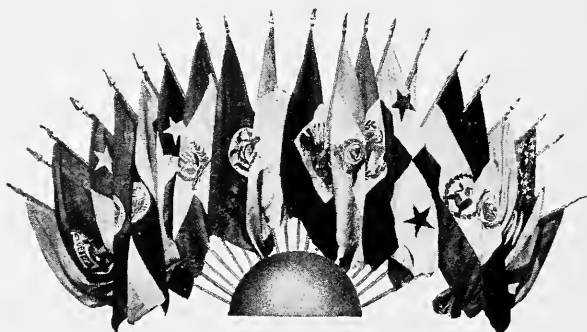
STANDARDIZATION

The Commercial Conference adopted three recommendations on the question of standardization: one on uniform classification of merchandise; another on standardization of weights and measures; and the third on uniform terminology for engineering, manufacturing, and commerce. The latter two recommendations called upon the Pan American Union to make studies upon the subject.

The recommendation on the uniform classification of merchandise, after stressing the necessity and desirability of furthering studies upon the subject, adopted as a basis the nomenclature prepared by the Economic Committee of the League of Nations for customs purposes. It was also recommended that each country establish a national classification office, and that the Governing Board of the Pan American Union create a special entity for classification work, all the work carried out by both groups to be coordinated as closely as possible.

APPROVAL OF MONTEVIDEO COMMERCIAL POLICY

Among the miscellaneous declarations adopted by the Commercial Conference was one on economic, commercial, and customs tariff policy which maintained and confirmed the declaration made on the subject at the Seventh International Conference of American States, meeting at Montevideo, Uruguay, in December 1933. This declaration called for the liberation of international commerce from unnecessary restrictions, the encouragement of international economic cooperation, and the elimination of restrictive unilateral measures affecting world trade.



PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

Pan American Conferences.—Mexico City has recently been the scene of the Seventh Pan American Scientific Congress which met in September, and this month is entertaining the Seventh Pan American Congress of the Child.

The Second Assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History will convene in the building of the Pan American Union in Washington from October 14 to 19.

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Acquisitions.—Since the last publication of the notes the Library has been enriched by several new histories and biographies. The histories include one of Chile by Augusto Orrego Luco, one of Mexico by Alfonso Teja Zabre, and a volume on the quadricentennial of Trujillo, Peru. The subjects of the biographies are for the most part notable Chileans, including Don Crescente Errázuriz, Captain Arturo Prat, and Andrés Bello, an adopted son. There is also a volume entitled *Hijos ilustres de Chillán*, which contains biographies of some historical characters of colonial and early republican times.

An interesting scientific contribution was a collection of four bulletins of the Brazilian Departamento Nacional da Produção Mineral, Serviço de Fomento da Produção Mineral. These contain studies on gold and diamond mines in Minas Geraes, on petrology and petroleum in north central Brazil, and on lead and silver mines in São Paulo.

The books mentioned are listed below with other interesting acquisitions:

Ofidioterapia [por el] Prof. Dr. Pedro Castro Escalada. . . . Buenos Aires, Viau y Zona [1935] 95, [4] p. 23½ cm. [Dr. Castro Escalada is the author of various medical works, including one on cobra serum and several on radiotherapy. In the present work he shows the value of different snake serums

in several diseases and cites cases. The bibliography also alludes to various uses of snake serums.]

Anuario de la Sociedad rural argentina; estadísticas económicas y agrarias. Prólogo del Ing. Luis Duhau. . . . Compilado bajo la dirección de Raúl Prebisch. N° 1, 1928. Buenos Aires, Establecimiento gráfico Luis L. Gotelli, 1928. 5 p. l., [v]-viii, 367, [12] p. tables, diagrs. 25 cm. [The Library has just received this first annual of the famous Argentine Rural Society. It is composed largely of tables and graphs covering the agricultural and economic life of the Republic for most of the twentieth century. The graphs are the work of Sr. Elías D. Ponzini.]

Política rural; (temas agro-zootécnicos). . . . [por] Juvenal José Pinto. . . . Prefácio do Dr. Ildefonso Simões Lopes. . . . Pôrto-Alegre, Oficinas gráficas da Livraria do Globo, Barcellos, Bertaso & cia., 1935. t. 1: 229, [1] p. pl. (port.) 19½ cm. [The author has long studied and worked in the agricultural field, especially in several agricultural experiment stations in Brazil. He pleads in this volume for the betterment of Brazilian agricultural conditions through improvements in cattle and crops, irrigation and soil development plans, and cooperation among agriculturists.]

El "Uti-possidetis juris" de 1810 y el derecho internacional americano [por] Pizarro Loureiro. . . . Rio de Janeiro, Tip. "Medicamenta", 1935. 16 p. 23½ cm. [A brief but interesting study of the important principle of *uti-possidetis* in American international law.]

Notas preliminares sobre algumas jazidas de minério de ouro do estado de Minas Gerais, por Djalma Guimarães e Victor Oppenheim. Rio de Janeiro [Diretoria de estatística da produção (Secção de publicidade)] 1934. 5 p. l., [5]-36 p. fold. diagrs. 23 cm. (Brasil. Departamento nacional da produção mineral. Serviço de fomento da produção mineral. Boletim N° 1.)

Depositos diamantíferos no norte do estado de Minas Geraes, por Luciano Jacques de Moraes. Rio de Janeiro, 1934. 77 p. 13 plates, tables, 17 diagrs. 23 cm. (Brasil. Departamento nacional da produção mineral. Serviço de fomento da produção mineral. Boletim N° 3.)

Rochas Gondwanicas e geologia do petroleo do Brasil meridional, por Victor Oppenheim. Com o "Mapa geológico do Brasil meridional" e "Carta das principais sondagens efetuadas no sul do Brasil, Uruguai, Argentina e Bolívia". Rio de Janeiro [Diretoria de estatística da produção (Secção de publicidade)] 1934. 1 p. l., viii, 129 p., 1 l. 32 plates, tables, 29 diagrs. (28 fold.), 3 fold. maps (1 col.) 23 cm. (Brasil. Departamento nacional da produção mineral. Serviço de fomento da produção mineral. Boletim N° 5.)

Chumbo e prata no estado de São Paulo, por Othon Henry Leonardos. Rio de Janeiro [Typ. d'a encadernadora, S. A.] 1934. 3 p. l., 47 p. 12 plates, fold. diagr. 23 cm. (Brasil. Departamento nacional da produção mineral. Serviço de fomento da produção mineral. Boletim N° 6.)

Prat [por] Luis Adán Molina. Santiago de Chile, Casa editora-imprensa "Artes y letras", 1935. 92 p. pl. (port.) 18½ cm. [Captain Arturo Prat, the hero of the battle of Iquique on May 21, 1879, has a worthy biographer in Sr. Molina, who dedicates the work to all Chilean naval students, since it is, he says, the life of Chile's greatest maritime hero.]

Biografía de D. Crescente Errázuriz [por] Carlos Fernández Freite. Prólogo de Francisco J. Cavada. . . . [Santiago de Chile] Editorial "Zig-Zag", 1935. 173 p. illus., ports. 18 cm. [Historian, man-of-letters, and beloved prelate of Santiago de Chile, Don Crescente's long life is reviewed here with full realization of his many accomplishments.]

Hijos ilustres de Chillán, por Domingo Amunátegui Solar. Santiago, Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1935. 87, [2] p. 21½ cm. [The author includes among his "illustrious sons" San Bartolomé de Gamboa, Don Francisco Núñez

de Pineda y Bascuñán, Padre Miguel de Olivares, Don Bernardo O'Higgins y Riquelme, Don José Antonio Rodríguez Aldea, and General Lagos.

Ensayo de bibliografía de la literatura chilena, por Arturo Torres-Ríoeco y Raúl Silva-Castro. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard university press, 1935. x, 71 p. 23½ cm. [The Harvard council on Hispano-American studies has now almost completed its series of bibliographies of Spanish-American literature. This latest contribution is made by two native sons of Chile, literary men in their own right.]

Don Andrés Bello [por] Eugenio Orrego Vicuña. [Santiago de Chile] Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1935. 285 p. plates, ports. 27½ cm. [Don Eugenio Orrego Vicuña has written numerous works on history, criticism, travel, politics, socialism, and several dramas. The present work—a long biography and bibliography of Andrés Bello—is published by the University of Chile, as a monument to its founder and first president.]

La Universidad de Chile (1843-1934) [Santiago de Chile, Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1934] xiv, 201, elviii, [iii] p. illus., port., tables. 27 cm. [A long history of the university (signed by Luis Galdames), a detailed study of its present organization, and numerous tables and photographs of the modern school buildings which house the university, make this an interesting and complete study.]

La patria vieja [por] Augusto Orrego Luco. Santiago, Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1933-35. 2 v. 25 cm. [Probably the last work of Dr. Orrego Luco, this lengthy study covers the period in Chilean history from the end of the colonial era to the battle of Rancagua; that is, the brief first period of Chilean independence, known to Chileans as "La patria vieja." Dr. Orrego Luco, as noted in the BULLETIN for December, 1933, was a well-known physician, author, journalist, and statesman.]

Archivo nacional. Índice del Archivo colonial. . . . [Publicación del] Ministerio de gobierno—Sección cuarta. . . . Bogotá, Imprenta nacional, 1935. v. 1: 351 p., 1 l. 24½ cm. Contents: Tierras. [Following the recent removal of the national archives from the Capitol in Bogotá to the Palace of Justice, an index of the volumes relating to the colonial period was begun by Carlos Gil and Manuel María Herrera, of the Archives Office. The first volume of the index, on legal proceedings concerning property in all the States (which at that time included also Ecuador, Panama and Venezuela), covers 217 volumes of the archives.]

Los Estados Unidos y Europa en Hispano América; interpretación política y económica de la Doctrina Monroe, 1823-1933. . . . [por] Jorge Roa. . . . [Habana, Carasa y cía., 1935] xi p., 10 l., [3]-411 p. 19½ cm. Señor Roa, a professor in the University of Habana, studies the Monroe Doctrine from an impartial standpoint. His work at Columbia University, New York, led him to consider the question. He discusses the most important aspects of the international policy of the United States in the American continent, especially in its economic antecedents. A 35-page bibliography is appended.]

Guide to the history of Mexico; a modern interpretation [by] Alfonso Teja Zabre. Mexico, Press of the Ministry of foreign affairs, 1935. xii, 375 p. illus. 24 cm. [This work is based on the author's "Breve historia de México" (México, 1934) listed in the NOTES for November, 1934. The author devotes considerable space to the primitive Mexican cultures and the influence of these cultures, as infused with the Spanish, on nineteenth and twentieth century Mexico. Another feature is the Chronological Summary, consisting of some 30 pages. The bibliography covers 12 pages.]

Un siglo de relaciones internacionales de México (a través de los mensajes presidenciales). Con un prólogo por Genaro Estrada, Director del Archivo histórico

diplomático. México, Publicaciones de la Secretaría de relaciones exteriores, 1935. xxvii, 464 p. 22½ cm. (Archivo histórico diplomático mexicano. N° 39.) [This is a review of Mexico's foreign relations from presidential messages. Señor Estrada's introduction gives a brief outline of relations, as disclosed in the messages. President Domínguez' message in November 1823 is the first recorded here; President Rodríguez' in September 1934 the last.]

"*La Fundación de Trujillo.*" Recopilación de artículos y trabajos históricos sobre dicha fundación. [Publicación de la] Junta del cuarto centenario de la fundación de Trujillo. Trujillo [Imprenta comercial, S. A.] 1935. 3 p. l., [5]-232 p. plates, facsim. 24½ cm. [There has been a question whether Trujillo, the Spanish city founded by Francisco Pizarro within the Incan empire, was founded in 1534 or 1535. In this volume the Trujillo quadricentennial commission attempts to compile all related historical data concerning the founding of the famous Peruvian city.]

Dos problemas internacionales de interés nacional: El río de La Plata y el mar territorial . . . [por el] Capitán de navío José Aguiar. Montevideo, Imprenta "El Siglo ilustrado", 1934. 175 p., 2 l. incl. 19 illus. (diags., maps), 3 fold. maps. 25½ cm. (Apartado de la "Revista del Instituto histórico y geográfico del Uruguay", Tomo X.) The question of territorial waters has always been important in international law. Captain Aguiar considers it from the general point of view, and notes the interest shown in it by the International Conferences of American States. This discussion is introductory to the more specific question of the La Plata river. The author quotes various sources as a background for his study, includes numerous old and new maps, and supplements the work with several appendices and a brief bibliography.]

Los relicarios (siluetas románticas en la vida del Libertador) [por] Alejandro Fernández García. Caracas, Tip. Universal [1935]. 2 p. l., xii, 110, cxxv p., 2 l. pl. (port.) 18½ cm. [An interesting addition to Bolivariana, this volume of Sr. Fernández García contains sonnets on numerous persons who influenced Bolívar's life. The second part of the book is devoted to biographical notes, taken from various sources, concerning the persons to whom the author alludes in the poems.]

Ana cariná rote; orígenes del militarismo heroico en Venezuela, por el brigadier J. C. Terrero Monagas. Caracas, Editorial "Elite", lit. y tip. Vargas, 1933. 256 p. illus. (incl. ports.) 23½ cm. ["Ana cariná rote" was the war-cry of the Carib Indians. It might be translated "We are the only ones". This book is a study of the military tactics of those famous Indians, who inhabited Florida, the Antilles, Colombia, Venezuela, and Brazil. Numerous old and new illustrations add to the interest of the work. A 2-page bibliography is appended.]

Ensayo crítico y antológico acerca de la historia de la literatura hispanoamericana, por el doctor C. Ayala Duarte . . . Caracas, Editorial Sur-América, 1933. 133, 138 p. Contents: Méjico y Centroamérica. [The greater part of this volume has been published in the "Anales de la Universidad central de Venezuela". The author has also written a history of Argentine literature (Caracas, 1928) and "Resumen histórico-crítico de la literatura hispanoamericana" (Caracas, 1927). The present study outlines the literature of Mexico and of the five Central American Republics from their beginnings to the present and includes many excerpts from the authors mentioned.]

La carta rogatoria o exhorto internacional ante las cortes norteamericanas [por] Guerra Everett . . . New York, Chalmers publishing co. [1935] 109 p. 23½ cm. [Mr. Everett, who has been admitted to practice before the Supreme Court of the United States, the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, and the Supreme Court of New York State, is chief of the division of commercial laws, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, U. S. Department of Commerce. Rogatory letters form an important chapter in national and international actions.

They are used also for administrative, criminal and fiscal civil procedure. In view of this, Mr. Everett has prepared this study for the use of Spanish-speaking readers. He includes numerous letters representative of form and contents.]

The following list of magazines gives information regarding publications most of which are new or have been received for the first time:

Ciudad y turismo; arte, viajes, espectáculos, modas. Buenos Aires, 1935. Año I, No 2, junio 1935. 64 p. illus., ports. 30½x23 cm. Monthly. Address: Florida 229, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Radio magazine (editado por Revista telegráfica). Buenos Aires, 1935. Año I, No 1, 13 de junio 1935. 64 p. illus. 28½x20 cm. Semi-monthly. Editor: E. N. Packmann. Address: Perú 165, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Revista de educación; órgano de la Dirección general de escuelas. La Plata, 1935. Año LXXVI, No 2 de 1935. 64 p. 24x17 cm. Address: Dirección general de escuelas de la provincia de Buenos Aires, La Plata, República Argentina.

Boletín del trabajo. La Paz, 1935. Año IV, No 22, 1935. 34 p. 23x17 cm. Editor: Pablo Guillén, Director general del trabajo. Address: Dirección general del trabajo, La Paz, Bolivia. (Publication has been renewed after having been suspended for 4 years.)

Movimento bancario do Brasil—Banking—Mouvement des banques. Rio de Janeiro, 1935. No 1, 31 março 1935. 7 p. tables. 25x32½ cm. Editor: Directoria de estatística economica e financeira, Ministério da fazenda. Address: Rua Luiz de Camões, 68; Caixa postal, 315, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

Elo fraternal; órgão oficial do nucleo "Vínculo internacional de amizade". Bahia, 1934. Anno II, No 5, outubro de 1934. 26 p. illus. 23½x16½ cm. Quarterly. Editors: Couto Maciel, M. Souza Lellis, R. P. Barbosa. Address: Rua Luiz Gama, 18, Cidade do Salvador, Bahia, Brasil.

Syn-diké; revista dos bancarios. Publicação oficial do Sindicato de funcionarios bancarios. São Paulo, 1935. No 1, anno I, maio de 1935. 60 p. tables (part fold.) 23x16 cm. Monthly. Editor: Walter Quaas. Address: Rua Libero Badaró, 43, 4º; Caixa postal 1099, São Paulo, Brasil.

Revista de ciencias penales. Santiago de Chile, 1935. Año I, Tomo I, No 2, mayo-junio 1935. [150] p. 26½x19 cm. Bimonthly. Editor: Abraham Drapkin. Address: Dirección general de prisiones, Teatinos 86, Santiago de Chile.

Scientia; revista científica trimestral. Órgano de las escuelas de la Fundación Federico Santa María. Valparaíso, 1935. Año I, No 4, 1º de julio de 1935. 32 p. illus., ports. 26½x19 cm. Address: Casilla No 110-V, Valparaíso, Chile.

Revista de la Cámara de comercio, agricultura e industrias de Quito. Quito, 1935. Junio de 1935. 28 p. 29x19½ cm. Editors: Sr. Leopoldo N. Chávez y Sr. Rogerio Alvarado C. Address: Calle Venezuela No 75, Quito, Ecuador.

La ciudad; revista mensual, órgano del Departamento del D. F., publicada por la Dirección general de acción cívica. México, D. F., 1935. No 1, junio de 1935. 49 p. illus. 27x20 cm. Address: Dirección general de acción cívica, Mercado "Abelardo L. Rodríguez", México, D. F., México.

Universal; revista femenina ilustrada. Lima, 1935. Año XII, No 67, mayo de 1935. [78] p. illus., ports. 35½x25 cm. Monthly. Editor: Elisa Rodríguez Parra de García Rosell. Address: Calle Plateros de San Pedro 120, Lima, Perú. (This magazine suspended publication with the September-October 1930 issue and has just recommenced publication.)

The Traveling American. Washington, D. C., 1935. Volume I, No 1, May, 1935. 32 p. illus., ports. 29½x22 cm. Monthly. Editor: Robert Burgess Draper. Address: 923 Fifteenth Street, NW., Washington, D. C.

Boletín histórico (del Estado Mayor General del Ejército). Montevideo, 1935. Año VI, N° 17, junio de 1935. 99 p. 24x16½ cm. Editor: Coronel Orosmaín Vázquez Ledesma. Address: Estado Mayor General del Ejército, 18 de Julio 1717, Montevideo, Uruguay. (This is the publication of the Army Archives, formerly issued under the title "Boletín de informaciones".)

Boletín latino-americano de música. Montevideo, 1935. Tomo I, Año I, abril de 1935. 288 p. illus., plates, ports. 29x20 cm. Semiannual. Editor: Instituto de estudios superiores del Uruguay, Sección de investigaciones musicales. Director, Profesor Francisco Curt Lange. Address: Tacuarembó, 1291, Montevideo, Uruguay.

Orbe; periódico universitario. (Publicación del Centro universitario de relaciones internacionales, entidad bajo los auspicios de la Dotación Carnegie por la paz internacional). Montevideo, 1935. Año I, N° 1, mayo de 1935. 12 p. illus. (ports.) 38½x28 cm. Editor: Profesor J. P. Medina. Address: Casilla de correo N° 841, Montevideo, Uruguay.

Gaceta jurídica trimestral. San Cristóbal, Venezuela, 1935. Año II, N° 5, abril a junio, 1935. 85 p. 25x17 cm. Editors: Dr. Amenodoro Rangel L., Dr. Luis Loreto, & Dr. Ángel Biaggini. Address: Apartado de correo N° 58, San Cristóbal, Estado Táchira, Venezuela.

Asia-America; a monthly illustrated journal devoted to industrial, commercial, cultural, and social affairs in the Asiatic and American continents. Printed in English, Spanish, Portuguese, and Japanese. Tokyo, 1935. Vol. I, N° 1, June, 1935. [98] p. illus., col. pl., ports. 30x22 cm. Editor: Dr. Carlos Rodríguez Jiménez, consul general for Venezuela in the Japanese Empire. Address: Hongo-Ku. Motomachi. Itchome, N/13/9. Tokyo, Japan.

Repertorio americano. San José, Costa Rica. (The editor having gone abroad, publication has been suspended for the second half of 1935. It will be renewed in January 1936.)



PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

NEW ARGENTINE-BRAZILIAN TREATIES

The sentiment of cordiality which found expression in the innumerable brilliant festivities and celebrations held in Buenos Aires when Dr. Getulio Vargas, President of Brazil, visited Argentina last May did not vanish with the echo of the last applause. On the contrary, it was given substance in a series of conventions and protocols which, added to those signed during the visit of President Justo to Brazil in 1933¹ form a series which regulates the manifold phases of the mutual relations of Argentina and Brazil; their commerce and navigation, the prevention of smuggling on their common frontier, the promotion of tourist travel, the interchange of books, the revision of history and geography texts, the regulation of extradition and air navigation, the establishment of permanent expositions of each other's products as well as annual expositions of fine and applied arts, the interchange of professors and students, and the measures to be adopted in the event of civil strife.

Treaty of commerce and navigation.—The most important of the instruments signed during the sojourn of President Vargas was the new treaty of commerce and navigation. It complements the provisions of the treaty of peace, amity, commerce and navigation of 1856 and particularly those of the commercial treaty and protocol signed at Rio de Janeiro in October, 1933. The latter provided for the appointment of a mixed commission to study those questions on which no decision had been reached at the time of President Justo's visit to Brazil and in general to examine the whole problem of the economic relations between Argentina and Brazil. The commission met at Buenos Aires and Rio de Janeiro; this treaty is the result of its labors.

According to a summary issued by the Argentine Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the treaty provides for unconditional most-favored-nation treatment with two exceptions: frontier traffic and custom unions. This treatment applies not only to custom duties but also to exchange control measures and to quotas and contingents. Should either country establish import quotas, they will not be less than the average of the imports during the three previous years. National treatment is granted to the vessels of either country, with the ex-

¹ For a summary of the treaties and conventions signed during President Justo's visit to Brazil see the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for January 1, 1934, pp. 39-49.

ceptions provided in their respective coastwise shipping laws. Nevertheless, both countries are to examine the possibility of extending each to the other the advantages and restrictions of their own coastwise navigation up to a specified limit on their respective coasts. The two nations have agreed to protect each other's products against unfair competition in their respective territories, especially by prohibiting the sale of products which bear marks giving false indications of their origin, kind, or quality.

The treaty contains special provisions with regard to maté, wheat, and wheat flour, the principal items in the trade between Brazil and Argentina. Brazil promises not to increase the duty on wheat and flour and not to impose quantitative limitations to their importation. Argentina in turn promises to abolish the surcharge on maté and likewise not to limit its importation.

Argentine fresh fruits, seed potatoes, and books and other publications will enter Brazil free of duty. Argentina grants free entry to Brazilian bananas, oranges, tangerines, avocados, *conde* fruits, pineapples, mangos, sapotes, coconuts, manioc meal, and books and other publications.

Brazil also grants reductions ranging from 20 to 60 percent on the duty now paid by many Argentine products, such as milk, lard, cheese, frozen poultry, beef, corn, preserved vegetables, wines, tomato paste, grape juice, potatoes, etc. The Argentine concessions include reductions of duty on such Brazilian products as coffee, cacao, rubber, coconut and other vegetable oils, and various kinds of wood.

The treaty will be in force for a year from the date of the exchange of ratifications.

Convention on civil strife.—This convention lays down the rules by which the authorities of Argentina or Brazil will be governed in the event of revolutionary activities in the other. It provides that the Government of the country in which public order is disturbed shall notify the Government of the other. Certain duties then devolve upon the notified country. It will adopt all measures at its disposal to prevent the inhabitants of its territory, both nationals and foreigners, from taking part in war preparations, obtaining war materials, or crossing the frontier to serve with the rebels. Likewise it will not permit the enlistment of sailors, soldiers or volunteers, and the equipment of vessels intended to operate in favor of the insurgents. It will disarm and intern any rebel force that crosses its frontiers and will return armed vessels owned by the other Government. It will forbid traffic in arms and munitions, except when intended for the other Government, and private traffic in transport and communication equipment when such material is obviously intended for the rebels. Upon request it will also intern, at a prudent distance from

the frontier, political émigrés who are conspiring against the other Government and will not allow them to establish juntas, committees, or clubs with that purpose. All expenses caused by internment will be borne by the complainant State. Both Governments will adopt all measures within their power to prevent their telegraphic, telephonic, and radio lines and stations, whether public or private, from being used for the benefit of the rebels.

Additional protocol to the extradition treaty.—The treaty of extradition signed at Rio de Janeiro on October 10, 1933, provided that the nationality of the fugitive could not be invoked as grounds for the denial of extradition, that is, Argentina could extradite from Brazil a Brazilian accused of a crime committed in Argentina, or vice versa. The constitution adopted by Brazil on July 16, 1934, however, forbids the extradition of Brazilian citizens on any grounds. The additional protocol signed at Buenos Aires last May takes cognizance of this prohibition and provides that: "The Contracting Parties are not obliged to deliver their respective nationals to each other or to consent to the transit through their territories of a national of one of them delivered to the other by a third State." In such a case the accused is tried by the tribunals of the country which denies his extradition. Naturalization after the commission of the crime for which extradition is asked does not constitute grounds for denial.

Convention for the interchange of professors and students.—Argentina and Brazil obligate themselves to promote an annual interchange of professors and scientists to lecture in the educational institutions and cultural centers of the other, as well as to accept the transfer of students registered in the secondary schools of one country to the schools of the other.

Protocol on the international bridge.—This protocol deals with the international bridge connecting the two countries which is to be constructed over the Uruguay River. The project took shape on June 15, 1934, when notes were exchanged between the two Governments providing for the appointment of a mixed commission to select the site, make the necessary preliminary surveys, draw up a plan of the project, and estimate its cost. The protocol provides that the bridge is to be erected in the zone between the towns of Paso de los Libres and Uruguayana, in accordance with the preliminary survey of the commission, and stipulates the manner in which the final surveys are to be made. The approaches to the bridge from the Brazilian and Argentine sides are to be constructed and maintained by the respective Governments separately. The bridge itself will be constructed and maintained by both Governments, each paying half the cost. Each country will exercise jurisdiction to the middle of the bridge; both Governments agree to secure from their respective legislatures the necessary appropriations for its construction. --G. A. S.

ARGENTINA SIGNS 15 CONVENTIONS WITH CHILE AND PERU

At a simple but solemn ceremony, attended by President Justo of Argentina, a series of bilateral conventions was signed on July 2, 1935, by the Argentine Minister of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Carlos Saavedra Lamas, and his Peruvian and Chilean colleagues, Dr. Carlos Concha and Dr. Miguel Cruchaga Tocornal, who had gone to Buenos Aires for the signing of the protocols for the cessation of hostilities in the Chaco. Ten agreements were signed with Chile and five with Peru, as follows:

ARGENTINA-CHILE

Protocol on railway communications.—Perhaps the most important of the agreements signed between Argentina and Chile is the protocol providing for the appointment of a mixed commission to make the necessary studies for establishing transandine railway communication via Juncal and other points. The studies are to include economic as well as technical phases of the question. The commission is to recommend to the two Governments modifications in the Treaty of Commerce of June 3, 1933, having in mind the necessity of supplying the transandine railways with sufficient freight to insure continuous service. It will also study all measures which would increase the number of passengers using the services.

Convention on judicial requests (exhortos judiciales).—This convention expedites the carrying out of judicial requests (*exhortos judiciales*) addressed by competent authorities of one country to those of the other by omitting the formality of authenticating the signatures on such documents when the requests are transmitted through diplomatic channels.

Convention on counterfeit currency and public instruments.—The manufacture or circulation of counterfeit currency, lottery tickets, government bonds and other credit instruments of one country in the other will be punished in the same manner as if the offense had been committed against that country's own currency, bonds, etc.

Convention on motion picture censorship.—Each Government agrees to forbid within its territory the showing of motion picture films which the other Government considers injurious to its prestige and good name.

Convention on the exchange of official publications.—In the interest of better understanding between the two countries, each Government promises to enforce agreements already signed for the exchange of such publications as the official gazette, bulletins of laws and decrees issued, statistical reports, presidential messages, reports of the various ministries, university publications, and similar official documents.

Convention on intellectual interchange.—The two Governments will do everything within their power to promote the exchange of professors, students, and journalists. Every year they will try to have at least two university professors or journalists from each country visit the other to deliver lectures. The expenses connected with these visits will be paid by the Government of the country to which the respective professors, journalists, and students belong, except when a special invitation has been extended by the Government or by competent authorities of the other. Special facilities are to be granted for student visits or excursions so that young men and women may come into contact with organizations and other institutions devoted to feminine activities, social welfare, and the promotion of peace.

Convention on the traffic in narcotics.—Desiring to cooperate fully with the humanitarian work of the League of Nations in regard to the traffic in narcotics and taking into consideration the facilities for communication along their extensive common frontier, Argentina and Chile agree to adopt special measures which will enable them to suppress this traffic efficiently.

The police and health authorities of the two countries are to keep in contact so as to agree on measures to be taken and to suggest to the Governments the issue of new regulations whenever necessary.

Convention on expositions.—Argentina and Chile agree to grant all the facilities within their power for holding within their respective territories expositions of each other's artistic or industrial products. These facilities will be granted to public or private enterprises worthy of such aid, and will include concessions as regards customs formalities and requirements, transportation on Government railways, exhibit and warehouse space and other related matters.

Conventions on facilities for frontier traffic and on the issue and visa of certificates of origin.—The text of these two conventions was not made public at the time of signature. According to press reports, the first convention accords special facilities for the trade in commodities consumed within the frontier regions of each of the two countries. It also provides that within 6 months after the exchange of ratifications, regulations will be issued fixing the maximum value of the products to benefit by these facilities. The second provides for the free issue and visa of certificates of origin by one country for goods destined for the other.

ARGENTINA-PERU

Convention on the exchange of publications.—A Peruvian section is to be established in the National Library at Buenos Aires and an Argentine section opened in the National Library at Lima. For the installation of these sections each Government shall supply a comprehensive collection of books and thereafter the national libraries

at Buenos Aires and Lima shall exchange books published in their respective countries as well as copies or photographs of documents of historical interest. After January 1, 1936, each Government shall supply the diplomatic mission of the other in its capital with three copies of all official publications and of those published with government aid. An identical convention was signed between Argentina and Brazil on the occasion of President Justo's visit to Rio de Janeiro in October 1933.

Convention on civil strife.—This convention is identical with that signed between Argentina and Brazil on May 25 last (see page 791). Since Peru and Argentina are not contiguous, the provisions relating to the internment of political refugees and rebel forces which cross the boundary have been omitted.

Conventions on judicial requests, motion picture censorship and intellectual interchange.—These three conventions are analogous to those on the same subjects signed between Argentina and Chile (see pages 793 and 794).—G. A. S.

CHILE AND PERU STRENGTHEN THEIR FRIENDSHIP

The increasing friendliness between Chile and Peru since the settlement of their territorial problems was further strengthened on July 5, 1935, by the signing of six treaties at Santiago by the Chilean and Peruvian Ministers of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Miguel Cruchaga Tocornal and Dr. Carlos Concha, upon their return from the Chaco Mediation Commission meetings at Buenos Aires. President Alessandri of Chile attended the ceremony, to "give evidence once more of his desire and the sincere wish of the Government and the people of Chile to strengthen the ties of cordiality and affection which bind Chile to Peru." The six treaties deal with civil registration, counterfeit currency, motion picture censorship, the census, judicial requests, and intellectual interchange. Referring to them President Alessandri said: "These treaties, although modest in appearance, are highly significant for, just as roots bind trees closely to the soil and allow them to extract from it their life-giving nourishment, countries are bound together, are united, by ties originating in treaties and conventions which, like those just signed, concern various phases of the vital functions of the two nations."

The treaties on judicial requests, counterfeit currency, offensive films and intellectual interchange are analogous to the conventions on the same subjects signed by Chile and Argentina on July 2 (see pages 793 and 794). The treaty on civil registration provides that each Government is bound to report to the other any entry concerning nationals of the other country in their respective civil registers and to

remit the corresponding certificates every six months by diplomatic channels. Thus the marriage or the death of a Chilean citizen living in Peru, or the birth there of a child to Chilean parents, will be automatically reported to the Chilean authorities, and vice versa. The treaty on the census lays down the procedure to be followed in taking the population census in so far as statistics of nationals of one country living in the other are concerned.

On July 12, *El Mercurio*, of Santiago, announced that all those conventions and treaties signed with Argentina and Peru which did not require Congressional approval had been promulgated by Presidential decree and that the commercial *modus vivendi* with Peru was to be extended for three months from August 1, so that the commercial relations of the two countries would not be disturbed pending the ratification of the commercial treaty which is to open the way for a wider interchange of Peruvian and Chilean products.—G. A. S.

THE NEW CONSTITUTION OF CUBA

Signed by Provisional President Carlos Mendieta, the members of his Cabinet and the Council of State, a new constitution was promulgated in Cuba on June 12, 1935. Its enactment sets aside the provisional constitution of February 3, 1934,¹ and restores that of 1901, "without other modifications than those required by the necessity of embodying in it the objectives gained by the Revolution." The constitution of 1901, modeled after that of the United States and issued shortly after Cuba became an independent nation, was extensively amended in 1928 to permit President Machado to extend his term of office. With the overthrow of the Machado regime in August 1933, these amendments were abrogated by Provisional President Carlos Manuel de Céspedes and the constitution restored to its original form.² However, when the Céspedes regime was in turn overthrown in September 1933, the government headed by Dr. Grau San Martín issued a Statute for the Provisional Government of Cuba³ which, although it did not expressly set aside the old constitution, was subsequently interpreted by the Supreme Court as an implicit abrogation.⁴ Formal revocation of the constitution of 1901 came with the fall of the Grau regime on January 1934 and the enactment by the present Provisional Government of the constitutional law of February 3, 1934.⁵ Cuba was governed until March 8, 1935,

¹ For an analysis of the constitutional law of Feb. 3, 1934, see BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, May, 1934, pp. 371-374.

² Decree No. 1298, August 24, 1933.

³ *Gaceta Oficial, Edición Extraordinaria*, No. 30, Sept. 14, 1933.

⁴ *Tribunal Supremo, Sentencia Núm. 2; Gaceta Oficial*, March 6, 1934.

⁵ *Gaceta Oficial, Edición Extraordinaria*, No. 10, Feb. 3, 1934.

under this statute and its subsequent amendments; then it was suspended as a result of revolutionary disturbances.⁶ Simultaneously with the restoration of the constitution of 1901, constitutional guarantees were reestablished throughout Cuba. General elections under the new constitution are scheduled to be held on December 15, 1935.⁷

The new constitution was issued at the request of the political parties. "Through this charter", states its foreword, "the people of Cuba are empowered to enact a broader fundamental law in accordance with their manifest aspirations toward renovation and the irresistible trend of thought of the times." That a fundamental constitutional revision is envisaged at a future date is also made evident by the fourth general provision of the constitution, which states that the new Senate and House of Representatives shall, within six months after they have convened, study, discuss, and approve a draft of reforms to the constitution in accordance with the provisions of Article 115. This article, identical with that of the constitution of 1901, provides that two-thirds of the members of each House must agree in order to amend the constitution totally or partially. The amendment voted by Congress is then submitted to a Constituent Assembly, the functions of which are restricted to the approval or disapproval of the proposal.

Probably the outstanding change in the constitution, as compared with that of 1901, is the new status granted to women. As was provided in the provisional constitution of 1934, women are granted the right to vote and Cuban women married to foreigners retain their Cuban citizenship. A foreign woman married to a Cuban is considered a Cuban citizen unless she chooses to retain her nationality of origin. (Art. 6, 7, and 39.)

With respect to international obligations, the new constitution states: "The Government shall respect and fulfill obligations of an international character lawfully contracted by previous governments, as well as all existing treaties in force." (General Provisions, No. 2.)

No death sentences will be carried out until Congress shall have decided, within six months after it meets, whether the death penalty is to be maintained or abolished. The legality of the decisions of the Sanctions Courts, which tried and sentenced to death many officials of the Machado regime, is however, specifically upheld in the constitution. (General Provisions, No. 5 and 7.)

A few changes have been made in the bill of rights. The provision that no law, except penal laws when they benefit the defendant, may be made retroactive, has been altered so that this exception shall not benefit persons who have committed electoral frauds or public servants who have violated the law in the exercise of their duties. Civil

⁶ *Gaceta Oficial, Edición Extraordinaria*, No. 14, March 8, 1935.

⁷ Electoral Code, Decree-Law No. 54, *Gaceta Oficial, Edición Extraordinaria*, No. 120, July 2, 1935.

laws, according to the new constitution, may be made retroactive for reasons of "social interest" or public order. An exception in cases of public necessity is made to the inviolability of obligations of a civil character arising out of contracts or other acts. In the article prohibiting the expatriation of Cubans provision is also made for the deportation of undesirable aliens residing in Cuba. To safeguard the guarantee that no law, decree, or order of any kind regulating constitutional rights will restrict these rights, a provision has been added that the Supreme Court shall decide upon the constitutionality of such laws or decrees upon petition by any citizen. Omitted from the bill of rights is the article of the provisional constitution of 1934 which puts responsibility for the consequences upon officers who use their weapons against prisoners attempting to escape. The constitution of 1901 stated that only invasion of the nation or serious disturbance of public order would authorize suspension of constitutional guarantees; to these the new one adds general strikes. However, a new safeguard has been provided by limiting to 90 days the period during which these guarantees may be suspended. (Art. 13, 14, 31, 38, and 41.)

A comparison of the chapter on the legislature with that of the 1901 constitution brings out an important modification in regard to the immunity of legislators and the right of Congress to declare amnesties, intended to remedy abuses which were common in the past. The old constitution provided (Art. 53) that a senator or representative could not be arrested or prosecuted except with the consent of Congress, unless caught *flagrante delicto*. The new one (Art. 54) limits this immunity to arrest and allows prosecution. It provides that when a judge or tribunal requests of the Senate or the House permission to arrest one of its members, this authority will be considered granted if not expressly refused within 30 days or if Congress adjourns without acting on the petition. Should the petition be denied, he will be prosecuted without depriving him of his liberty, unless he opposes the proceedings. Should judgment be rendered against him he will have to serve the sentence though it deprive him of his liberty. The modification in regard to amnesties is designed to prevent Congress from declaring a general amnesty after each election by suspending the penalties for violations of the electoral laws. The new constitution states (Art. 60, sec. 10) that Congress does not have the right to declare amnesty in cases of electoral frauds and it may be granted only to those who have served one third of their sentence in cases of other crimes committed in connection with elections or in cases of misapplication of public funds. Amnesties granted by former administrations were abrogated after the overthrow of the Machado regime, the legality of this abrogation being specifically upheld in the new constitution.

Age limits have been generally reduced: for President, from 40 to 33 years; for senators, from 35 to 30; for representatives, from 25 to 21; and for voters, from 21 to 20. Foreigners wishing to become naturalized citizens now need wait only one year instead of two between the declaration of intention and the granting of citizenship papers.

In the new constitution the term of office for President of the Republic is four years and no one may be re-elected. The constitution of 1901 provided for the same term of office and stated that "no one may be President for three consecutive terms". The reform made in 1928 extended the term of office to six years and stated that "no one may discharge the office of President in two consecutive terms." A temporary provision, however, stated that the first term under this amendment would begin in 1929, thus allowing the incumbent, who was the only candidate in the 1928 elections, to hold office for six more years.

The chapter dealing with the Vice-Presidency, an office which was abolished in 1928, is the same as that of the 1901 constitution. The chapters dealing with the cabinet and the provincial and municipal governments have also remained unchanged.

Until general elections are held for President, Vice-President, senators, representatives, governors, mayors, and provincial and municipal councils, the present Provisional Government will function under a set of special articles contained in the new constitution. The Provisional President, his Cabinet, and the Council of State, will function as a legislative body, the latter in an advisory capacity, and all laws will be promulgated by decree as before.—G. A. S.

THE NEW CONSTITUTION OF HAITI

Ratified by a plebiscite held June 2, 1935, the new constitution of Haiti went into effect upon publication on June 17, 1935. It was drafted by a special commission of the legislature and signed by nearly all the members of both houses, and takes the place of that issued in 1932.¹ At the same time that the people voted on the new constitution they ratified one of its special provisions extending the term of office of President Sténio Vincent for another five year term beginning May 15, 1936.

In comparing the new constitution with that of 1932, it will be noted that the provisions with regard to foreigners in Haiti have been modified. A foreigner who through naturalization becomes a Haitian citizen must now wait 10 years instead of 5 before he can exercise political rights. The right to own real property, granted to foreigners

¹ For an analysis of the Haitian constitution of 1932 see BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, Feb., 1933, pp. 133-137.

and to foreign corporations domiciled in Haiti solely for purposes of domicile and the pursuit of agricultural, industrial, commercial or educational enterprises, expires one year, instead of two years, after the individual has left the country or the corporation discontinued operations. (Art. 5 and 8.)

To the principle that all Haitians are equal before the law the following proviso has been added: "Nevertheless, as far as the exercise of civil rights is concerned, the law may establish certain differences between native born Haitians and Haitians by naturalization." (Art. 6.)

The article which guarantees property rights to citizens and provides for just compensation when real property is expropriated in cases of public necessity has been kept in the new constitution with the following modification: "But property carries with it also certain obligations. Its use must be in the general interest. The owner of real property has, with respect to the community, the duty of cultivating and exploiting the soil. Sanction of this obligation is provided for by law." (Art. 7.)

Omitted from the new constitution are the sections of the old establishing the conditions under which arrests could be made; providing for the non-retroactivity of laws and the inviolability of domicile and correspondence; prohibiting the confiscation of property for political reasons; and granting the rights of assembly and association.

In the chapter dealing with government finances the provision prohibiting the establishment of privileges in regard to taxes and the granting of exemptions except by law has been omitted. No mention is made of the *Chambre des Comptes* established by the former constitution for the examination and settlement of administration accounts.

The provision that the legislative, executive, and judicial powers exercise their respective functions independently and separately has been omitted. Instead the new constitution states: "The Government of Haiti is republican and democratic. It functions through the executive power, directed by a President, the holder of the public power, under whose authority the various organs of the state function and who is assisted by the legislature and the judiciary." (Art. 14.)

THE LEGISLATIVE POWER

As before, the legislative power resides in the Chamber of Deputies, the Senate, and the National Assembly, made up of the two houses meeting together. There will be 37 deputies and 21 senators instead of 36 and 20 as provided in the constitution of 1932. The deputies, as formerly, will be elected by universal suffrage for a term of 4 years. Senators, however, will no longer be chosen by an electoral college. Ten of the twenty-one are to be appointed by the President of the

Republic, the other 11 by the Chamber of Deputies from two lists of three candidates for each seat, one submitted by the electoral colleges and the other by the Chief Executive. They will hold office, as formerly, for six years. Besides the requirements as to age, enjoyment of civil and political rights, and residence provided for deputies and senators in the old constitution the new demands also ownership of real property. Members of the Legislature may now become members of the Cabinet or be placed in charge of a temporary State mission abroad, their salaries as legislators ceasing while they hold such positions. The annual regular session of the legislature has been moved forward from the first Monday in April to January 15. The terms of the present members of the Legislature have been extended so that they will hold office through the year 1936. (Art. 15, 19 and 23.)

In cases of serious disagreement between the two houses or between the Legislature and the Executive Power, the President of the Republic has the right to dissolve the legislature. In that case elections are to be held three months later. In the interim the President may issue decrees having the force of law which are to be submitted to the new Legislature for ratification and will require a two-thirds adverse vote in each house for rejection. (Art. 20.)

The procedure to be followed when a law passed by the Legislature is vetoed by the President has been changed. He is no longer limited to a period of eight days in which to exercise his veto power. When he returns a law with a statement of his objections, the House which first passed it must within eight days ask the other House to meet in joint session as the National Assembly and pass upon the objections. If the objections are not upheld and the President insists, the law will be submitted for final action to the National Assembly at the beginning of the next ordinary session. Previously, if the objections were rejected by a two-thirds vote in each house the President was compelled to sign the law. (Art. 24.)

The provision of the 1932 constitution by which no monopoly concessions could be made without the approval of the Legislature has been omitted.

The National Assembly no longer has the power to elect the President or declare war, and its right to revise the constitution has been modified. At the close of each ordinary session the National Assembly will appoint a permanent committee of eleven members—six deputies and five senators—approved by the President to help him draft the decrees issued between sessions. (Art. 30.)

EXECUTIVE POWER

The executive power is exercised by the President of the Republic "who personifies the nation." (Art. 31.) His term of office is now five years instead of six, but he may be reelected for another

consecutive term; such reelection was forbidden by the constitution of 1932. No one may be elected President who has held that office for two terms.

The qualifications for President are the same, except that he is now required to own real property, and he must be at least 40 years old instead of 35. (Art. 32.)

Whereas formerly the President was elected by the National Assembly under the new constitution, the Assembly's role is now limited to designating three candidates from among those who have indicated by registered mail their interest in assuming the office. The people then choose one of these three candidates through the primary electoral assemblies in each commune. (Art. 38.)

The powers of the Executive as outlined in the new constitution are as follows: (Art. 35.)

The President of the Republic is in charge of the supreme administration of the country.

(a) He is the commander-in-chief of the land, sea, and air forces; he executes and enforces the laws and the constitution, issuing decrees, decisions, regulations and orders to this effect.

(b) He appoints and removes the employees and officials who form part of the general administration.

(c) He calls the Legislature in extraordinary session.

(d) He may, if political or other circumstances so require, postpone the normal date for legislative elections three months or more, in which case senators and deputies remain in office until the newly elected Houses meet.

(e) He declares wars and makes peace with the authorization of the National Assembly.

(f) He negotiates conventions and international treaties.

(g) He decides upon all interior loans in case the revenues of the State are obviously insufficient or when he considers certain political or economic circumstances in the life of the State to be of such a nature as to disturb the public peace, giving the Legislature an account of his application at its next session.

(h) He declares a state of siege when necessary.

(i) He exercises supreme command over the police and has the right to pardon and commute sentences.

(j) He grants all amnesties.

The President is no longer obliged to discuss with the Secretaries of State, as the members of the Cabinet are called, the measures which he enacts in the exercise of his powers. Members of the Cabinet continue to be responsible for the acts of their own departments and the nonexecution of laws but not as formerly for decrees or other measures signed by the President and countersigned by them, a responsibility which previously not even a written order from the Chief Executive could relieve them of. The number and powers of the Secretaries of State are to be fixed by law; the former constitution provided that they could not be less than five. The right previously granted to the Legislature of summoning the members of the Cabinet and questioning them upon the acts of their administration is not mentioned. (Arts. 40 and 41.)

THE JUDICIAL POWER

Justice is rendered by a Court of Cassation, civil courts and peace courts, the number and powers of which are fixed by law. (Art. 42.) Judges, as previously, are appointed by the Executive, the term of office of those of the civil courts being reduced from 10 to 7 years. Judges of the Court of Cassation and the civil courts, as provided in previous constitutions, cannot be removed during their term of office except for the commission of crime. A transitory provision, however, stipulates that the President may, in the interest of justice, suspend this privilege for a period of six months beginning May 15, 1936. Among the articles of the old constitution which have been omitted are those providing that all disputes involving civil rights and, with certain exceptions established by law, political rights also, are under the exclusive jurisdiction of the courts and that no court and no jurisdiction for the settlement of disputes can be established except by virtue of law.

The new constitution provides for a special tribunal, composed of the president of the Court of Cassation, the president of the Senate, and the president of the Chamber of Deputies, to try the President of the Republic, the members of the Cabinet and the members of the Court of Cassation for treason or other crimes committed in the exercise of their duties.

This court functions upon an accusation supported by two thirds of the Senate and can apply only the penalty of forfeiture, removal from office, and suspension of the right to hold public office for no less than a year and no more than five. Previously the right to try government officials was exercised by the Senate upon impeachment by the Chamber of Deputies. (Art. 14.)

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT

The communes of Haiti, which the former constitution declared autonomous, have been placed under the direct control of the Executive. Local government is exercised by three citizens elected by an assembly formed exclusively of taxpayers. One of these three officials is selected by the President to hold the office of Communal Magistrate for a term of four years. (Arts. 45 and 46.)

REVISION OF THE CONSTITUTION

The method of revising the constitution has been changed. The Legislature, upon the initiative of either house or of the Executive, declares, during an ordinary session, that the constitution should be revised partially or totally. At the end of the ordinary session the Legislature meets as the National Assembly in extraordinary session and deals exclusively with the proposed revision. Once the revision has been enacted, the Executive submits it within three months to the people for ratification and, if approved, it is proclaimed in a special

session, by the National Assembly. Under the former constitution, amendments enacted by the National Assembly were valid without popular ratification. (Art. 55.)—G. A. S.

MESSAGE OF THE PRESIDENT OF CHILE

At the opening of the regular session of the Chilean National Congress on May 21, 1935, President Arturo Alessandri read a lengthy message giving a detailed report on the events of the past fiscal year, a document of "great importance, broad in its judgment and duly supported by statistical data", as *El Mercurio* of Santiago describes it, adding that there is a good deal in it "which will surprise many of our own nationals, affording them a clearer view of our present conditions, at the same time that it will cause a favorable impression and inspire confidence abroad."

The nation has rapidly returned to constitutional government. The people freely exercised their civil rights in electing the President of the Republic, their representatives in Congress, and, not very long ago, their city councils. The municipal elections marked the first time that women and foreigners have voted in Chile. "Public opinion, desirous of peace, quiet, order and respect for our institutions", the President remarked, "is a strong intangible force that has supported the Government in its endeavors."

The fiscal year for 1934 closed with an actual surplus of 62,108,-253.73 pesos. Notwithstanding the countless difficulties which had to be overcome, the administration successfully launched a public works program; paid bills due to the amount of several hundred million pesos; arranged for resumption of the foreign debt service to the extent present conditions permit; solved the unemployment problem; maintained and improved administrative machinery; and did its best to improve the lot of public employees. The message contained assurance that no additional tax burdens would be imposed, pointing to the fact that steps had been taken to eliminate some of the existing taxes.

Banks showed an increase of 18.35 percent in their deposits during the year, with a corresponding rise in bank advances, loans, discount operations, etc. Insurance companies and corporations increased their net profits by 4.5 percent. Revenues disclosed in connection with payment of the excess profits tax showed an increase of 377,000,-000 pesos, or 33.68 percent over those of the preceding year. Agriculture and mining have had a decidedly better year, while the building trades have been extraordinarily active not only in the cities but also in the rural communities. Chilean exports were valued at 496,000,000 pesos in 1934, as compared with 290,000,000 in 1932 and 344,000,000 in 1933. The improvement in the purchasing power of

the nation is revealed by the imports, which rose in value from 182,000,000 pesos in 1933 to 243,000,000 in 1934.

Outstanding among the items mentioned in the review of Chilean foreign affairs were: the maintenance of friendly relations with all the world, but particularly with the sister republics of this continent; the observance of strict neutrality in the Chaco conflict, and the efforts made, in collaboration with other American countries, to arrive at a satisfactory solution of the problem; the international economic policy, "applied wisely and intelligently", which has brought about a number of important trade treaties with nations of both the Old World and the New; and the ratification of numerous international conventions, especially those signed at the Seventh International Conference of American States, held at Montevideo, regarding extradition, nationality, rights and duties of States, asylum for political exiles, nationality of women, and the additional protocol to the General Convention on Inter-American Conciliation.—F. J. H.

DR. ROBERTO BERRO, NEW DIRECTOR OF THE INTERNATIONAL AMERICAN INSTITUTE FOR THE PROTECTION OF CHILDHOOD

At a recent meeting of the International Council of the International American Institute for the Protection of Childhood of Montevideo, Dr. Roberto Berro of that city was elected to succeed the late Dr. Luis Morquio as director of the institute.

Dr. Berro comes to his new office well qualified by years of experience in the fields of child health and child welfare, not only in Uruguay, but in international associations as well. In the past he has served as president of the Pediatric Society of Montevideo, as Chairman of the Council of the Child, and as head of the Asilo Larrañaga, an institution for children in the Uruguayan capital. Dr. Berro also played a prominent part in drafting the new Children's Code of Uruguay. He has attended as a delegate past Pan American Child Congresses, and from its foundation been actively interested in the establishment and development of the organization of which he is now the director.

SOUTH AMERICAN UNION OF ENGINEERS' ASSOCIATIONS

On May 23 and 24, 1935, representatives of engineers' associations of Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Peru, and Uruguay met in Buenos Aires to organize an international society with which, it was hoped, national institutions in other South American countries would become affiliated.

The formation of such an organization was the suggestion of Señor Francisco Marseillán of the Centro Nacional de Ingenieros of

Buenos Aires. The proposal was unanimously approved, and the national associations of the four countries represented at the meeting were invited to send representatives to a constituent conference.

The purposes of the South American Union of Engineers' Associations, as given in the constitution adopted at that time, include the organization of international congresses of engineers; the encouragement of visits of engineers, singly or in groups, of one country to another, the interchange of professors, lecturers, and engineers between universities, schools, and professional associations, and the formation of personal ties between engineers of the different countries; the exchange of reports between professional associations and of technical, professional, commercial, or personal material between their members, individually or collectively; the passage of legislation fair to the profession, and the application of codes of professional ethics; the study of technical problems affecting more than one of the countries represented, as well as public works projects and economic subjects of an international character; the representation of member institutions at international congresses or before governments; and the furtherance of peace and understanding between nations.

The executive committee elected for the new institution was as follows: president, Señor Francisco Marseillán of Argentina; vice president, Señor Francisco Saturnino de Brito Filho of Brazil; secretary, Señor José L. Buzetti of Uruguay; members, Señor Francisco Mardones of Chile and Señor José Balta of Peru. The headquarters of the union are in Buenos Aires, at the Centro Nacional de Ingenieros. The first convention of the union will be held in Montevideo at a date to be decided upon by the executive committee.



ARGENTINE SCHOOL OF JOURNALISM OPENED

On June 14, 1935, the Argentine School of Journalism at the National University of La Plata was opened with exercises attended by the president of the university, Dr. Ricardo Levene, members of the Journalists' Circle of the Province of Buenos Aires, members of the university, and the general public. Dr. Manuel M. Eliçabe, director of the school, made the inaugural address.

Shortly after the establishment of the school was announced, *La Prensa* of Buenos Aires commented editorially upon the fact in its issue of May 24. Part of the editorial is as follows:

"Early last year, at the instance of the Journalists' Circle of La Plata and under the auspices of the university there, courses in journalism were introduced. The lectures and the classes in theory and practice proved that the subject was of interest not only to those planning to follow a newspaper career, but also to those already engaged in that profession. The results of the experiment led the superior uni-

versity council to create a school of journalism, with a curriculum distinct from the courses of other institutes connected with the University of La Plata. The new school will not, for the present, occasion any expense to the institution which has founded it, since students will attend some classes at the College of Liberal Arts and others held at the Journalists' Circle and given by members of that organization. The students will not be granted diplomas from the university at the conclusion of their studies, but will receive certificates showing the subjects they have studied. . . .

"This foundation, which will be called the Argentine School of Journalism and which will be the first of its kind in South America, has the double advantage of proving that our university is taking an interest in newspaper activities and at the same time of being a new expression of the always laudable cooperation of a professional organization—such as the Journalists' Circle of La Plata—in the education and social work carried on by the university. . . ."

THE COMPULSORY INSURANCE FUND OF CHILE

Compulsory illness, disability, and accident insurance was first established in Chile by law no. 4054 of September 8, 1925, for all low-salaried working men and women, the cost to be borne by contributions from State, employer, and employee. The law also provided for the creation of the Compulsory Insurance Fund (*Caja de Seguro Obligatorio*), which was to receive the contributions and provide for the insured both medical attention and funds for the family while the breadwinner was incapacitated. The Caja, established in June 1925, has 10 years of excellent service to its credit. The law has been somewhat changed during this period; at present labor accident insurance is handled separately, and old age pensions are administered by the Caja.

At first the Caja worked with the National Savings Bank and the Public Welfare Bureau. In 1928 the latter was given entire charge of the medical services, and those of inspection were placed under the Ministry of Labor. The results were not satisfactory, and in January 1932 the Caja was reorganized and took direct charge of all services, opening offices of its own throughout the country. At present it has polyclinics in all important cities and towns, medical aid stations in the larger rural centers, and contracts with all hospitals for the admittance of seriously ill patients.

MEDICAL SERVICES

In the cities the Caja has established clinics, where the work of the doctors is divided into three sections: admittance and emergency

treatment; diagnosis; and treatment and the granting of disability certificates. This system keeps the amount of feigned illness to a minimum and gives the best possible diagnostic service.

The problem in rural districts is more difficult, owing to the scattered population, the lack of means of transportation, and the relatively limited resources of the Caja for this service. Medical patrols (*rondas médicas*) have been established; each doctor has a definite route and visits at regular intervals the consultation clinics and rural stations, at each of which there is an interne (*practicante*) or a resident nurse who fills prescriptions, gives treatments, and makes the rounds in the unavoidable absence of the physician. At present the Caja has established 128 consultation clinics, 218 stations (*postas*), 79 rural medical stations, and 2 sanatoriums. Since 1932 it has established special services in 17 cities, ambulance service in 7, and 38 stationary and 50 traveling pharmacies.

INVESTMENT POLICIES

The investment of the large sums which are paid into the Caja has been made according to three criteria: security, adequate return, and benefit to society. With these ends in view the Caja has bought rural property, where it not only gives work to many otherwise unemployed, but is experimenting with plants and crops to enlarge the national resources; it has invested in some industrial enterprises already established, such as the Laboratorio Chile, which manufactures drugs and other medical supplies, and helped establish others, among them the National Bag Factory (see BULLETIN for February 1935); in several cities it has opened clothing shops, where low-salaried workers and their families may purchase suitable clothing at prices within their means; and it has begun low-cost housing developments. Seven hundred houses have been constructed in what is known as "Lo Franco", near Santiago; four apartment houses are to be built in Santiago as soon as the census has been taken in the industrial districts; and a program has been drawn up for the construction of 4,350 houses, with their attendant community centers, in 14 cities, at an estimated cost of 76,000,000 pesos.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON INTER-AMERICAN INTELLECTUAL COOPERATION APPOINTED IN THE UNITED STATES

A national committee to cooperate with the Division of Technical and Scientific Exchange of the Pan American Union was recently established and its 19 members appointed by the Secretary of State, under the chairmanship of Mr. John W. Studebaker, Commissioner of Education in the Department of the Interior. This action was taken

in fulfillment of the terms of resolutions adopted by the Seventh International Conference of American States meeting in Montevideo in December 1933.

The committee, which expects to hold its first meeting in October, is as follows:

Mr. JOHN W. STUDEBAKER, *chairman*, United States Commissioner of Education.

Dr. FRANK AYDELOTTE, president of Swarthmore College.

Dr. ALBERT L. BARROWS, secretary, National Research Council.

Dr. HARRY Y. BENEDICT, president of the University of Texas.

Dr. ISAAH BOWMAN, director of the American Geographical Society.

Mr. LAURENCE VAIL COLEMAN, secretary, American Association of Museums.

Dr. STEPHEN P. DUGGAN, director of the Institute of International Education.

Dr. CARLTON J. H. HAYES, professor of history at Columbia University.

Mr. CECIL K. JONES, assistant cataloguer of the Library of Congress and professor of Spanish American literature.

Dr. JOHN C. MERRIAM, president of the Carnegie Institution of Washington.

Dr. W. COLEMAN NEVILLS, S. J., rector, Loyola School and Regis High School.

Mr. RAYE R. PLATT, secretary of the American Geographical Society.

Dr. J. A. ROBERTSON, editor, *Hispanic-American Historical Review*; Archivist of the State of Maryland.

Dr. JAMES BROWN SCOTT, director of the Division of International Law of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.

Dr. ROBERT G. SPROUL, president of the University of California.

Dr. JOHN J. TIGERT, president of the University of Florida.

Dr. EDMUND A. WALSH, S. J., vice president, Georgetown University.

Mr. HENRY B. WARD, American Association for the Advancement of Science.

Dr. MARY W. WILLIAMS, professor of history at Goucher College.

ELECTRICITY CENSUS IN ARGENTINA

The importance of the electric power industry in Argentina is revealed in the first official figures released by the Ministry of Agriculture. The compilation of the data was undertaken pursuant to a decree of February 2, 1934; the information obtained refers therefore to 1933. The information was obtained from 471 companies, which supplied electricity to 797 communities from 783 distributing plants. Only commercial plants were included in the investigation; therefore the figures released by the Government do not include industrial enterprises producing energy for their own use, even though some of that energy may also be supplied to their employees' dwellings.

The figures have been summarized as follows:

Capital invested.....	paper pesos..	1, 012, 158, 826. 04
Energy produced.....	kwh.....	1, 673, 133, 015
Value of electricity sold.....	paper pesos.....	176, 892, 923. 59
Cost of fuel consumed.....	paper pesos.....	18, 725, 563. 25
Wages and salaries.....	paper pesos.....	30, 383, 412. 66
Persons employed.....	number.....	13, 833

ARGENTINE TRIBUTE TO THE MEMORY OF SAMUEL F. B. MORSE

A bronze statue of Samuel F. B. Morse, placed in the "Hall of Foreigners" of the Central Post Office and Telegraphs Building, was unveiled on July 3, 1935 by President Agustín P. Justo. The speakers included Señor Faustino E. Juárez, chairman of the committee in charge of the tribute, which had been made possible by voluntary contributions from telegraph operators throughout the nation; Dr. Carlos Risso Domínguez, the Postmaster General, who accepted the statue on behalf of the Post Office Department; the Hon. Alexander W. Weddell, United States Ambassador to Argentina; and Señor Anacleto M. Rodríguez, a telegraph operator in the central office. At the appointed moment of unveiling, all telegraphic and wireless communication throughout the country was suspended for one minute.

CONVENTION OF THE NATIONAL FOREIGN TRADE COUNCIL

The National Foreign Trade Council will hold this year's sessions in Dallas, Texas, on November 18-19-20. Preparations are now in progress for making this Convention one of the largest and most important in the history of the organization. Hundreds of business men from all parts of the United States and representatives of foreign interests are expected to be present. A general review of business conditions throughout Latin America as well as in other nations of the world will form a feature of the meetings. Diplomats, foreign representatives, members of the United States Foreign Service and leaders in commerce and industry are to take part in the proceedings. The meeting in Dallas will be the twenty-second annual conference of the National Foreign Trade Council, which holds its sessions in a different city of the United States each year.

THE COLOMBIAN-PERUVIAN PROTOCOL RATIFIED

The Protocol of Peace, Friendship, and Cooperation and its additional act, signed by representatives of Colombia and Peru in Rio de Janeiro on May 24, 1934 for the settlement of the Leticia incident, has been ratified by both countries. The protocol provided that "the exchange of the instruments of ratification . . . shall be effected within the shortest time possible, before December 31st of the current year." The Peruvian Congress approved the protocol on November 3, 1934, but owing to parliamentary difficulties the

Colombian Congress was unable to ratify it within the period originally set. A joint statement issued on February 23, 1935, by the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of both countries announced that the time limit had been extended to November 30, 1935. On September 20, 1935, it was signed by President López of Colombia, having been approved by the Senate on August 24 and by the House on September 17. On the same day the Government of Colombia notified that of Peru that the protocol had been ratified, and congratulatory telegrams were exchanged between Government officials. Exchange of ratifications took place in Bogotá on September 27.

The protocol recognizes the boundary treaty signed between the two countries on March 24, 1922 and ratified on January 23, 1928; provides for the demilitarization of the frontier; and stipulates that whenever problems arise which cannot be settled through direct diplomatic negotiations, "either of the High Contracting Parties may appeal to the procedure established by article 36 of the statute of the Permanent Court of International Justice."

BRIEF NOTES

STATUE TO BOLÍVAR IN QUITO

On July 24, 1935, the 152nd anniversary of the birth of Simón Bolívar, the Liberator, a monumental statue to his memory was dedicated in Quito. The United States was represented at the ceremonies by its Minister to Ecuador, the Hon. Antonio C. González, who had been especially appointed his country's delegate on that occasion.

ARGENTINE-BRAZILIAN GOODWILL CRUISES

According to a statement in *The Times of Argentina*, two cruises to Brazil, to start in early July, were being organized to return a recent visit of Brazilian tourists to Buenos Aires. The first was to be gone 30 days, and visit Rio de Janeiro, São Paulo, and Pogos de Caldas. The second was to call at Santos and Montevideo on the return journey. The organizers invited 10 children from the Estados Unidos del Brasil School in Buenos Aires to be their guests on the trip.

POPULATION OF THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

On August 16, 1935, President Trujillo issued a proclamation containing the official population figures for the Dominican Republic as of May 13 of this year, when the national census was taken. On that date the Republic had 1,478,121 inhabitants.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF HISTORIC MONUMENTS FORMED IN CHILE

On June 18, 1935, the National Council of Historic Monuments held its first meeting in the office of the Minister of Education in Santiago, Chile. The Minister, Señor Osvaldo Vial, presided at the meeting. Señor Aníbal Bascuñán V. was elected secretary of the council, and it was decided that it would hold weekly meetings in the law school of the University of Chile. The other members of the council, as announced in the Santiago press, are Señor Aureliano Oyarzún, director of the National Historical Museum; Señor Teodoro Schmidt, Director General of Public Works; Señor Ricardo Donoso, counsellor of the National Archives; Señor Rodolfo Oyarzún, president of the Institute of Architects; Col. Manuel Campos, representing the army; Admiral Javier Martín, retired, representing the navy; Señor Richon Brunnet; Señorita Ana Lagarrigue; Señor Daniel Schweitzer; Señor Agustín Edwards M. C.; Señor Alberto Mackenna; and Señor Fernando Márquez de la Plata.

CUSTOMS AIRDROMES IN VENEZUELA

According to information sent by the Government of Venezuela on June 27, 1935, to the International Commission for Air Navigation, the customs airdromes of that Republic are situated at La Guaira, Maracaibo, Ciudad Bolívar, Caripito, Coro, and Cumarebo.

FIRST RADIO LIGHTHOUSE IN ARGENTINA

The first radio lighthouse in Argentina was recently installed at Punta Mogotes, a cape on the south Atlantic near Mar del Plata. It was constructed in the shops of the Naval Communications Service and embodies the most modern features. Its use overcomes the difficulties presented by optical or acoustical beacons in foggy weather.

WORK ON INTERNATIONAL RAILWAY BEGUN AT AUGUSTA VICTORIA, CHILE

On June 7, 1935, at a ceremony attended by Chilean and Argentine officials, the Minister of Promotion of Chile laid the first rail on the long-planned international railway which will link the Chilean port of Antofagasta with the city of Salta in northern Argentina. The railway will be 523 miles long, 206 of which will be in Chile. By using lines already constructed to Augusta Victoria, 96 miles inland, only 110 miles will have to be built to connect that point with the pass at the foot of Mount Socompa where the railway will cross the boundary.

NECROLOGY

DANIEL SALAMANCA.—One of the outstanding figures in recent Bolivian history, former President Salamanca, died on July 17, 1935.

Dr. Salamanca was born in Cochabamba on July 18, 1863, and educated in that city, receiving his law degree from the University of San Simón in 1890. After several years of law practice and teaching, he was elected deputy in 1901 and 1902, and the following year was appointed Minister of the Treasury. For the next 18 years he was a member of the Senate. During that period he helped found the Republican Party, of which he was elected chairman in 1912. In March, 1931, he was inaugurated President of Bolivia, taking over the executive power from the Military Junta which had been administering the affairs of the nation for eight months. Last November ill health obliged him to resign, and he was living in retirement at his home near Cochabamba when he died.

Dr. Salamanca had been a member of special missions that visited the United States and Europe in 1910, and in 1928 represented Bolivia in discussions of the Chaco problem held in Buenos Aires.

RINALDO DE LIMA E SILVA.—A former member of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, Senhor Rinaldo de Lima e Silva, died on August 2, 1935, in Brussels, where he was representing his country as Ambassador.

Senhor Lima e Silva's long diplomatic career began in 1896, with his appointment as attaché of the Brazilian Legation in Vienna. After service in Europe, Asia, and America, he was made Counselor of the Embassy in Washington in 1909, and as Chargé d'Affaires of his country and consequently member of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, represented his country at the dedication of the present building of the Union on April 26, 1910. After serving as Minister of Brazil in Ecuador, Bolivia, Switzerland, Poland, and Spain, and as Ambassador in Japan and Mexico, he was appointed Ambassador to the United States, and in April 1931 presented his letters of credence at the White House. During the three years he was in Washington he was instrumental in negotiating the agreement between his Government and the Federal Grain Stabilization Corporation of the United States whereby 1,050,000 bags of coffee were exchanged for 25,000,000 bushels of wheat.

LUIS MORQUIO.—One of the most eminent physicians and pediatricians of America, Dr. Luis Morquio of Uruguay, died in Montevideo on July 8, 1935, in his 68th year.

After receiving his medical degree in 1892, Dr. Morquio went to Paris, where for two years he studied under leading authorities, especially in the field of pathology. On his return he opened and took charge of the Children's Clinic at Montevideo, becoming increas-

ingly known for his interest in child welfare, which found expression in a series of reform measure for protecting children. He received recognition and honor at home and abroad, but his most enduring monument is the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood, established in compliance with resolutions passed by the Fourth Pan American Child Congress at Santiago, Chile, in 1924. In recognition of his efforts on behalf of the institute, Dr. Morquio was appointed its first director, a position he held at the time of his death; under his able leadership the influence of the organization was a constructive force in child welfare activities throughout the continent.

JULIO PHILLIPI.—On June 26 Julio Phillipi, a Chilean lawyer, professor, and statesman, died in Santiago. Señor Phillippi had served as Minister of the Treasury under President Ibáñez and represented his country at the Third and Fourth International Conference of American States, held in Rio de Janeiro in 1906 and in Buenos Aires in 1910 respectively, and at the Second Pan American Scientific Congress of 1915-16, held in Washington. Señor Phillipi drafted the bill establishing the Central Bank of Chile, and at one time was Superintendent of Banks.

LUIS VÉLEZ.—On May 6, 1935, Dr. Luis Vélez died in Caracas. Dr. Vélez, well-known as an engineer and as a statesman, had held for some time before his death the portfolio of Public Works in the Venezuelan Cabinet. He was known and esteemed in his profession abroad as well as at home; at the time of his death he was president of the Academy of Physical and Natural Sciences and Mathematics, and corresponding member of the American Society of Civil Engineers.

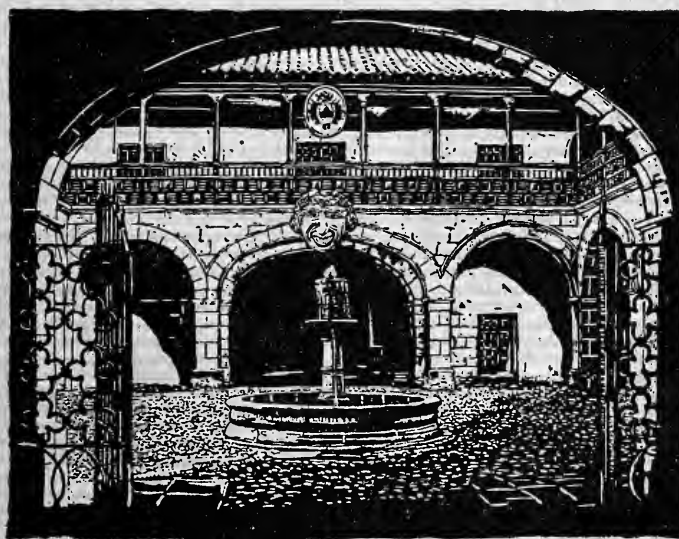
CALIXTO OYUELA.—The president of the Argentine Academy of Letters, Dr. Calixto Oyuela, died in Buenos Aires on June 12, 1935, in his 79th year. The outstanding humanist of his time, Dr. Oyuela exercised a profound influence as a teacher and as a writer. After graduating from the university, where he studied both humanities and law, he taught Spanish literature, philosophy, and aesthetics in secondary and normal schools and in the university. As a writer, Dr. Oyuela was noted for the classic purity of his style, as shown in his essays and poetry; he was also the author of textbooks and translations.

JAVIER VIAL SOLAR.—A figure long prominent in the public life of Chile disappeared with the death on June 1, 1935, of Javier Vial Solar, at the age of 81. Dr. Vial Solar, a graduate of the law school of the University of Chile, began his public career as secretary of the arbitration commission which settled the German claims arising from the War of the Pacific. He entered Congress as national deputy in 1889, and later served his country as its Minister in Lima and in Rio de Janeiro. Dr. Vial Solar was also the author of many important historical and international studies.



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NOVEMBER

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and an administrative division exists for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

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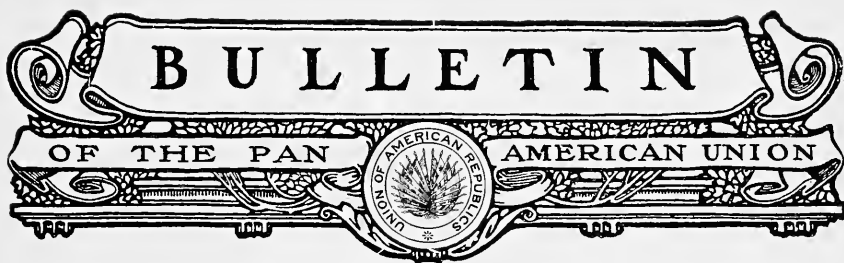
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Courtesy of Luis A. Bález.

NEW MONUMENT TO SIMÓN BOLÍVAR IN QUITO, ECUADOR.

On the one hundred and fifty-second anniversary of the birth of the Liberator, July 24, 1935, this monument was unveiled in Quito.



Vol. LXIX

NOVEMBER 1935

No. 11

THE SEVENTH AMERICAN SCIENTIFIC CONGRESS

By WALLACE W. ATWOOD, Ph. D.,

President, Clark University; Member of the United States Delegation to the Congress

AT THE invitation of the Mexican government delegates from 18 American Republics came together in Mexico City, on September 8, 1935, and opened the Seventh American Scientific Congress. The organizing committee, working under authority granted by the Department of Public Education, had made excellent arrangements for the Congress, which was to remain in session from September 8 to 17. Dr. Pedro C. Sánchez, president of that committee, and Luis Sánchez Pontón, general secretary, were elected to the same offices in the Congress. To these men, their assistants and the officers of the several divisions of the congress, as well as to the Government of Mexico, notable credit is due for the successful administration of the various meetings, excursions and social gatherings that were included in the program.

On the afternoon of September 8 a reception was tendered by the Secretary of Foreign Affairs. Here the delegates had the pleasure of becoming mutually acquainted and of meeting many of the Mexicans who were to take part in the conduct of the congress. (The number of delegates and registered members was 487.) During the afternoon Mexican music provided a colorful and enthusiastic atmosphere which pervaded the entire period during which the meetings were in session.

On the morning of Monday, September 9, the delegates convened in the Fine Arts Palace, and were there addressed by the President of the Republic, General Cárdenas; greetings were extended by the

General Secretary, Luis Sánchez Pontón. On behalf of the visiting delegates Dr. Cloyd H. Marvin, president of George Washington University and chairman of the delegation from the United States, responded.

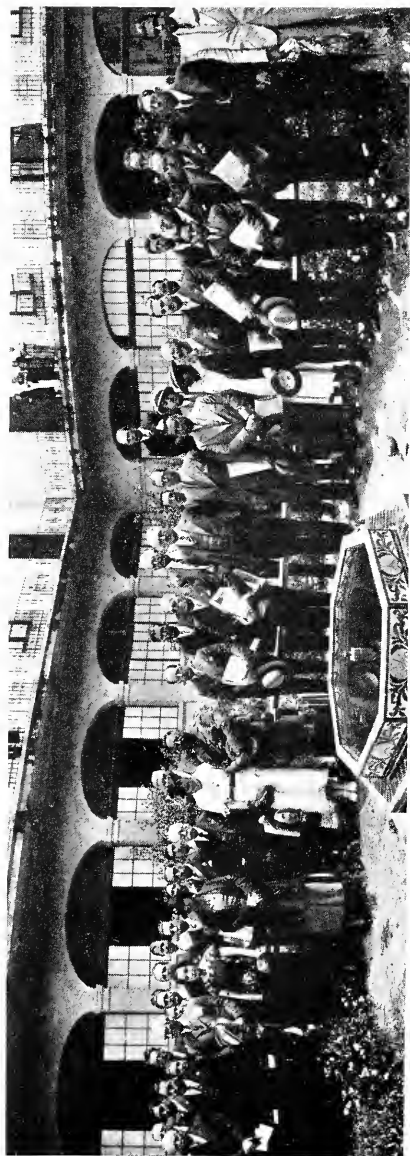
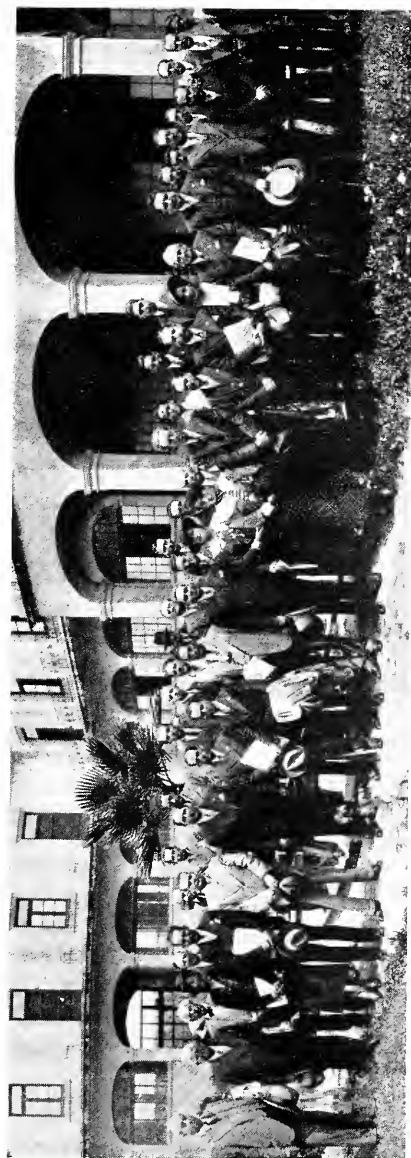
During the succeeding days the various sections of the Congress convened in halls that had been set aside for their meetings, and there, in small groups, listened to the reading of scientific papers presented by delegates, and informally discussed many of those papers. The congress included the following sections:

1. Physical and Mathematical Sciences;
2. Geology;
3. Engineering;
4. Industrial Chemistry;
5. Agricultural Sciences;
6. Biological Sciences;
7. Medical Sciences;
8. Hygienic Sciences;
9. Anthropological and Historical Sciences;
10. Social and Economic Sciences;
11. Educational Sciences;
12. Bibliography;
13. Indian Life;
14. Juridical Sciences.

Since each section was practically a specialized congress in itself, it is impossible to make any brief summary of the work of the congress in general. Almost 300 papers were presented, many of them highly technical. It is expected that printed proceedings will make them available to interested persons throughout the Americas.

Most of Thursday, September 12, was devoted to a visit to San Juan Teotihuacán, where some of the famous pyramids of the ancient inhabitants of the valley of Mexico have been partially restored and where collections of archaeological remains have been installed in a museum. Luncheon was served there by the Secretary of Public Education. Nearly 300 people took part in this excursion; they returned to the capital city delighted with the hospitality extended, and deeply impressed with the remarkable ruins.

On Saturday, September 14, nearly 500 members of the congress and guests joined in an expedition, which took all day and far into the evening, to Cacahuamilpa and Cuernavaca. At Cacahuamilpa there is a remarkable cave in the limestone mountains of southern Mexico. That natural wonderland has been set aside as a national reserve. The cave is beautifully illuminated with electric lights and as the party was conducted from room to room the crystal formations of that underground realm were explained and described by very efficient guides. Cuernavaca is a charming old city on the south slope of the



THE SEVENTH AMERICAN SCIENTIFIC CONGRESS.

Delegates from the American Republics met in Mexico City from September 8 to 17, 1935, to discuss the advances of science in the nations of Pan America. This photograph was taken at the closing session, which was held in the building of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History.

mountains just beyond the valley of Mexico. Its cathedral and many of the old homes, as well as the modern buildings and the frescoes of Diego Rivera, took the attention of the visitors and brought them still closer in touch with the life of the Mexican people. This expedition was made by automobiles, traveling over newly constructed national highways.

Sunday and Monday, September 15 and 16, had been set aside by the Government of Mexico for the celebration of the 125th anniversary of the declaration of independence. The delegates to the scientific congress were all invited to join with the Mexican people in this national commemoration. The city was crowded with visitors from various parts of the nation. Games and athletic exhibitions, music and dancing characterized the program. The President of Mexico held a reception in the National Palace on Sunday evening preceding the traditional ringing of the bells at eleven P. M. On Monday the patriotic ceremonies included a formal military parade.

On Tuesday, September 17, the closing session of the congress was held in the home of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History. There reports from the presidents of the various sections were received and various resolutions, which had been suggested in the sectional meetings, were presented. The Congress also adopted general resolutions. The first was a vote of thanks to the organizing committee and to the Government of Mexico for its hospitality. The second suggested that each American Government create an Institute of Economic Geography to make studies of a national character, which might be coordinated with those made privately, so as to secure (1) increased interchange of products of the various Republics; (2) solution of the problems of competition in products which enter into foreign trade; and (3) unified action on the part of the American nations in meeting the exigencies of world commerce. These institutes, as corresponding sections, would form a part of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History in Mexico. The third resolution recommended to the American nations: (1) that they establish national institutes of science if they do not already have them; (2) that all the countries should appoint national committees of intellectual cooperation, one of their chief purposes to be continental cooperation; (3) that the publication of scientific reviews, both popular and technical, should be promoted; (4) that pursuant to the action of the Third Scientific Congress, held in Lima, the interchange of teachers and students should be fostered; (5) that each country should unify its educational system as far as possible so as to facilitate the progress of students who are obliged to leave one school for another; (6) that in conformity with a resolution of the Lima Congress, university curricula in the respective countries should as far as possible have a

common standard so as to facilitate the inter-American recognition of professional degrees without revalidation.

The fourth resolution commended the Pan American Union for its cooperation in the preparations for the Seventh Scientific Congress and also extended a vote of thanks to the press for its reports on the congress. The fifth resolution approved a vote taken by the Juridical Section, and supported unanimously by the other sections of the congress, which recommended to the American Governments that they should not resort to force for the solution of their conflicts; that they should maintain their neutrality in conflicts arising between other States, and that they should adopt a Code of Peace, which would permit the juridical, and therefore permanent, solution of such controversies. It furthermore recommended to the governments that before adopting measures restricting the importation of foreign products, they should take into consideration, for the sake of peace, not only their material interests but also those affecting international good feeling and solidarity.

The sixth resolution expressed warm sympathy with the Peace Conference at Buenos Aires and the hope that all obstacles to a definitive peace between Bolivia and Paraguay might be removed.

On the proposal of the Colombian delegation, the seventh resolution suggested to the governments of the American nations that at least one year's course in general American history should be included in the secondary school curriculum.

The eighth resolution gave authority to the executive committee to add the latest conclusions of the various sections to the final act of the congress.

Many other extremely interesting resolutions were passed by the 14 sections. Unfortunately, lack of space prevents the mention of them all.

The section on physical and mathematical sciences requested all the American nations bordering on the Caribbean to appoint a committee to study air conditions over their territory and over neighboring waters, as a basis for the transmission of information from one to the other.

The section on geology recommended the establishment in Mexico of a national petroleum institute.

The section on engineering suggested to the Pan American Union that the topic of legislation on the exercise of learned professions in the American countries be placed on the agenda for the next scientific congress.

The section on industrial chemistry passed several resolutions, including one recommending the publication of a project, presented to the congress, on the cultivation of medicinal plants in the Americas.

The section on agricultural sciences voted that studies be made of inter-American conditions for the sale of agricultural products, in order to obtain information on which to base harmonious commercial relations between the countries of the continent. This section also advocated studies designed to analyse various agrarian systems now existing and the practical results of measures taken by the respective governments, in order to obtain conclusions which will enable the governments to perfect their procedure in this respect.

The section on biological sciences proposed the establishment of three marine biological stations in Mexico to study the problems connected with commercial species of fish and shellfish and proper methods of exploitation. This section also voted in favor of the promotion of scientific investigation on the ground of public utility and advocated security of tenure and adequate salaries for scientific personnel.

The section on medical sciences adopted two resolutions on the control of onchocerciasis and cancer.

The section on hygienic sciences was very active, passing 27 resolutions. The first congratulated President Cárdenas of Mexico on having taken the first step towards giving pure drinking water to the small towns of his country. Other resolutions discussed the adequate training of public health officials, their promotion, tenure, salary, full time employment, pensions, etc. Still others spoke of the campaign against tuberculosis and the fight against yellow fever, paying a tribute to the International Health Board of the Rockefeller Foundation. Other subjects treated were the central supervision of public and private charitable institutions and hospitals; quarantine provisions with respect to air transportation; health conditions of workers at home and in the factory; the school study of hygiene and child care; and the coordination of public health work in all government departments.

The section on anthropological and historical sciences congratulated President Cárdenas of Mexico on his championship of the idea that scientific investigation is a functional part of government and on his proposal to create a cabinet portfolio to be entirely devoted to the uplift of the indigenous population. The Carnegie Institute of Washington was also congratulated on its program for the study of the Maya race. The seventh resolution of the Third Pan American Scientific Congress relative to the formation of catalogs and the conservation and publication of documents in the archives of the American nations was recalled to the attention of the respective governments by this section, which also stressed the urgency of continuing work in this direction and preparing a general descriptive index of the archives. Interest was likewise expressed in the series of

publications on inter-American history, under the auspices of the Hispanic-American Historical Association.

The section on social and economic sciences passed 19 resolutions. The first recommended the use of silver money as fiduciary currency as far as may be possible to each nation. It further recommended that the central banks of the American nations should create an inter-American body whose first duties should be the stabilization of money in America and the regularization and supply of inter-American exchange. Other resolutions urged the necessity of studies on the cost of living in each country and the interchange of information on the preparation of an annual budget. Commercial treaties avoiding a policy of extreme nationalism, the minimum wage, the seasonal migration of workers, vital statistics, regional planning, the international standardization of statistics on agricultural wages, unemployment services, and ratification of the labor and social welfare conventions of the International Labor Office were subjects of other resolutions by this section. The section closed by condemning war and the use of science for purposes contrary to the interests of the worker, making common cause with him in his struggle for the advent of a world in which the realization of social justice shall put all scientific knowledge into service.

The section on education passed resolutions on agricultural education as most suitable for the American Indian in view of his economic needs; the necessity of teaching principles of sociology in the secondary school, especially for all students planning to study a profession; the translation of foreign text books on sociology, psychology, statistics and civics into Spanish; the teaching of family education and sex education. The final resolution of this section suggested that the university should have constant contacts with public questions, studying all national problems through experts, but without assuming a position which would interfere with its primary function of culture.

The section on bibliography passed ten resolutions. They were concerned with the indexing of archives, an inter-American service for lending books from public libraries and scientific institutions, bulletins on juvenile literature, annual catalogs of library accessions, rural libraries, standard rules for cataloging, a union catalog, centralization of bibliographical studies in each country, the publication of various bibliographies, technical preparation of librarians and archivists, and other analogous subjects.

The section on Indian life adopted resolutions on means to improve the lot of the Indians, through the better preparation of teachers, regional planning based on economic research and direction, and public health measures. The compilation of vocabularies of the Indian languages, especially in relation to their influence on Spanish, was also advised.

The section on juridical science passed the resolution on peace that has already been mentioned as having been adopted by the final plenary session of the congress, and also adopted other resolutions dealing with territorial waters, the international responsibility of States and the principle of national sovereignty.

At the close of the session the present writer, acting as president of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History, extended, on behalf of the United States of America, an invitation to the nations of Latin America to send representatives to Washington for the week of October 14-19 to participate in the Second Assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History.

The delegates were then all taken to the floating gardens at Xochimilco, where they drifted slowly in Mexican gondolas through the canals of a "western Venice" and between the flowering plants of that beautiful little suburb of Mexico City, listening to native music from a special gondola which accompanied the flotilla. At the luncheon hall among these gardens a most delightful banquet of native dishes and a large variety of beverages were provided. As the dinner proceeded the echoes of Mexican music drifted through the banquet hall, and at the close the party was entertained by a number of native dancers.

The Mexicans opened their homes and their hearts to the delegates from other countries. They cooperated most cordially and helpfully in the discussion of scientific progress which is being made in the various countries of the western world; they established still stronger bonds of friendship and a still stronger desire for further cooperation in intellectual and cultural affairs.



THE PERUVIAN CENTRAL HIGHWAY

By EDUARDO A. SALGADO

Chairman, Highway Committee, Peruvian Touring Club

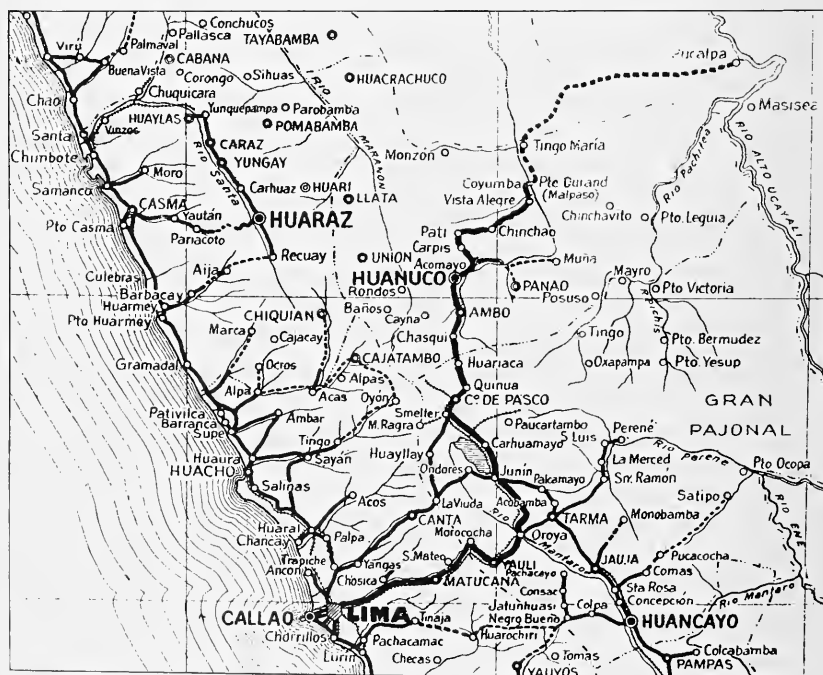
IN June last the Peruvian Government opened to traffic the Central Highway. It starts from Lima, the capital of the Republic—or rather from the port of Callao, 8 miles away, which is connected with Lima by several avenues paved with concrete—and runs east, ascending the Andes, crossing the mountains at an altitude of 15,890 feet, and descending by the eastern slope of the range to Oroya where a junction is made with the highway system of the Department of Junín, which in turn is connected with the roads of the Departments of Huánuco, Huancaavelica, and Ayacucho.

The Central Highway must be considered the first real motor road to cross the Peruvian Andes, for that via Canta, opened two years ago, which also unites the capital with the northern part of the Junín highway system, is not as well engineered as the Central Highway. The latter is, in fact, the first section of the great highway to the tropical eastern section of Peru, via Cerro de Pasco, Huánuco, and Tingo María to Pucallpa, a port on the Ucayali River from which steam navigation to and down the Amazon all the way to the Atlantic Ocean is feasible throughout the year. With the completion of this first section and of certain work on the section from Oroya to Cerro de Pasco, planned for 1935, there will be 321 miles of uninterrupted highway from Lima to Puerto Durand near the Huallaga River, leaving 207 miles to be constructed before reaching Pucallpa. Thus there will eventually be a highway 528 miles in length which establishes a combined land and water route between the Pacific and the Atlantic across the widest part of the South American Continent.

The construction of the Central Highway was extremely difficult because of the tremendous mountains to be climbed and because the Central Railroad, which crosses the Andes through the same gorges, took the easiest route. [Proposed in 1868, it was completed to Oroya in 1893.] The Andes, whose lowest passes are almost 16,000 feet high and whose peaks rise above the line of perpetual snow, extend the whole length of Peru at a comparatively short distance from the coast—about 60 miles at 12° south, the latitude of Lima. The gorges on the western slope are very precipitous, and torrential rivers broken by many waterfalls have made deep canyons along their steep courses. On the western side the terrain is more favorable. The gorges slope more gradually and the topography in general does not offer great difficulties to highway construction. The Central Highway ascends

the cordillera on the west along the course of the Rimac River to its source. It crosses the range by Anticona pass, 15,889 feet above sea level, said to be the highest point in the world reached by a motor highway, and descends along the Yauli River, part of the Amazon River system, to Oroya, the terminus of this highway and the commercial metropolis for central Peru. In Oroya, as has been said, the Central Highway connects with the highway system of the Department of Junín—that is, with the road from Cerro de Pasco to Huánuco and Pucallpa, northwards; with the road from Tarma to San Ramón and La Merced, from which a trail runs eastward to the Pichis River, and with the road under construction from Jauja to Huancayo and Ayacucho towards the south.

The gorge of the Rimac River, like all those on the western slope of the Andes, has two well-defined sections. Near the coast, between sea level and an altitude of approximately 4,900 feet, the grade is comparatively moderate, not presenting great difficulties to highway construction. In the mountains above this altitude the grade is much steeper and the gorge narrows in one place to a canyon about 20 miles long, where the engineers had to overcome tremendous obstacles.



From map drawn by Luis Hoyos Salazar.

THE ROUTE OF THE CENTRAL HIGHWAY OF PERU.

The Central Highway, of which the first section was opened to traffic in June 1935, is indicated by the heavy black line running from the coast to Puerto Durand, on the Huallaga River. Its eventual extension to Pucallpa, a river port on one of the affluents of the upper Amazon, will provide a new land and water route across the widest part of the South American Continent.



THE MINISTRY OF PROMOTION, LIMA.

An ambitious highway program is being carried out under the direction of the Ministry of Promotion.

In the first section of about 35 miles, the highway reaches an altitude of about 4,900 feet at Tornamesa after following the gorge and crossing the river by two bridges, one of which, at Chaclasana, has a span of 328 feet. The average grade on this section is 2.2 per cent. In the second section the highway has to make numerous zigzags for the purpose of gaining almost 11,000 feet of altitude in about 50 miles. Between Tornamesa and the summit at Anticona, it passes through the towns and important mining centers of Surco, Matucana, Viso, Tamboraque, San Mateo, Río Blanco, Chicla and Casapalca. The difficulties of the terrain obliged the engineers to make deep cuts and build high retaining walls, as well as to construct 28 bridges. Among the construction of greatest importance is the work in "Infiernillo" canyon, where the road had to pass between two mountain-sides from 500 to 750 feet high. The roadbed is supported on bridges, high retaining walls and half-tunneled cuts, all built under the viaduct of the Central Railway.

On the eastern slope of the Andes the road descends from Anticona to Oroya, 12,224 feet above sea level and 111 miles from Lima, passing through the important mining center of Morococha and descending gradually along the course of the Yauli River, which is crossed three times.

It has already been said that the Central Highway utilizes the same gorges as the Central Railroad. It should be added that the former crosses the latter at 18 grade crossings and 9 underpasses.

The highway is 20 feet wide in all the recently constructed sections and somewhat less in the old parts utilized provisionally so as to open



Courtesy of the Peruvian Touring Club.

THE CENTRAL HIGHWAY OF PERU.

Upper: In the vicinity of Tornamesa. Here the road reaches an altitude of 4,920 feet, paralleling the old trail along the mountainside at the right.

Lower: Chaupichaca Gorge. The highway passes under the famous Chaupichaca Bridge of the Peruvian Central Railroad.

traffic. The maximum gradient in the new sections is 6 percent and the minimum radius of curves 66 feet, the changes of gradient being connected by vertical curves. Culverts and gutters have been constructed, as well as conduits paved with masonry.

The first 25 miles of highway are paved with concrete 8 inches thick. The balance of the roadbed has been rolled and in some sections given a surface of rubble. I understand that it is the purpose of the Government to continue paving the highway with bituminous material. Kilometer stones and highway signs indicating curves, bridges, grade crossings, etc., have been set up along the route.

The engineering of the highway permits traffic to proceed comfortably and safely in both directions at an average speed of 30 miles an hour, which may be considered high, since in only three hours and 85 miles the motorist reaches Anticona at a trifle more than three miles above sea level.

It is of interest to consider what the construction of the Central Highway will mean in the development of the region which it traverses. The cities of Lima, Callao and their suburbs, with a total of 450,000 inhabitants, constitute the great market for the products of the interior Departments, products which in large part will be moved over the Central Highway, leaving to the railroad shipments of great volume or weight, which would be too expensive to ship by truck because of the higher freight rates. The railroad rates, however, will probably be considerably reduced with the increasing use of Diesel engines. It has already been said that the highway joins numerous important towns and mining centers among which there is likewise a considerable trade. This is carried on almost exclusively by road, since trucking is naturally the best means of shipment for short distances and merchandise of small bulk. The construction of the highway, furthermore, definitely assures uninterrupted communication between the capital and the central Departments, while in the mountain rainy season—December to March—railroad communication is often broken off for considerable periods because of the damage wrought by floods and mud carried down onto the track from lateral gorges. Similar damage is likely to occur on the highway also, but the interruption will be for a much shorter time, since motor vehicles, unlike locomotives, can run on poor roads.

In the region tributary to the Central Highway there are large agricultural and stock raising enterprises whose products are marketed in the coast cities or exported. There are also some textile factories and, most important of all, the largest ore smelters and concentration plants in the country. It is safe to say that this district is not only one of the richest but also one of the most highly industrialized. Indeed, as an index of this industrialization it may be mentioned that in this zone is generated 70 percent of the electrical energy produced



Courtesy of the Peruvian Touring Club.

THE CENTRAL HIGHWAY OF PERU.

Upper: Nearing the Infiernillo Canyon on the Rimac River. Construction of the section through this gorge was one of the most difficult engineering feats on the highway. Lower: Anticona Pass. At the foot of Mount Meiggs the road traverses Anticona Pass at an altitude of 15,889 feet, the highest point that it reaches.

in the whole country and that furthermore two new hydroelectric plants with a capacity of more than 120,000 horsepower are under construction. It may also be added that 82 percent of the passengers and 62 percent of the total freight carried by all Peruvian railways are moved between the Departments of Lima and Junín, which are united by the Central Highway. The latter will presumably divert a considerable share of the traffic, especially many passengers.

From the point of view of the tourist it is evident that the Central Highway has remarkable attractions. In fact, it is already the preferred motor excursion out of Lima. Along its route one may



ORE SMELTER AT CERRO DE PASCO.

The Central Highway as it extends northward passes through Cerro de Pasco, one of the great copper-mining centers of the world.

enjoy magnificent scenery and all climates, ranging from the temperate on the coast to the cold of the mountains, where the mercury sometimes goes down to 14° F. Physical conditions vary so markedly in a journey relatively so short that the tourist may enjoy a great diversity of landscapes typical of the coast, the hills and the mountain heights, as well as displays of the vegetation and agricultural products typical of varying climatic conditions. Besides these natural beauties, he may also admire the feats of engineering on the Central Railroad (whose first section is the oldest in South America), an undertaking which necessitated the construction of 45 bridges and 62 tunnels. Finally, he will be amazed at the construction of the highway itself, the crowning achievement of Peru in highway construction, in which



Photograph by W. V. Alford.

THE HUALLAGA RIVER VALLEY.

Great contrast in climate and scenery, from the frigid temperatures of the barren highlands to the warmth of the Tropics with their luxuriant vegetation will be offered the tourist motoring over the Central Highway, which, when completed, will be 528 miles in length.

difficult engineering problems have been solved without incurring undue construction costs.

The highway was planned by Peruvian engineers and built by Peruvian labor, the work being executed under the Ministry of Promotion, with the special supervision of the Bureau of Public Works and Communications. Modern machinery was used and the cost of the work was completely met by Government funds.

To cover the maintenance of the highway, tolls are charged. These are undoubtedly an annoyance to those who use the road, but the necessity of obtaining funds for upkeep required their imposition. It is hoped that shortly a new tax on traffic, possibly a surcharge on motor fuels, will remove this annoyance and bring about a simpler method of collection, for in general highway tolls, especially on roads where traffic is inconsiderable, are very expensive to collect.

PRINCIPAL POINTS ON THE CENTRAL HIGHWAY

Places	Altitude	Distances		Places	Altitude	Distances	
		Partial	Total			Partial	Total
	<i>Feet</i>	<i>Miles</i>	<i>Miles</i>		<i>Feet</i>	<i>Miles</i>	<i>Miles</i>
Lima.....	492	0	0	Infiernillo.....	10,597	2.5	65
Chosica.....	2,789	24	24	Chicla.....	12,247	6	71
Tornamesa.....	4,970	14	38	Casapalca.....	13,664	6	77
Matucana.....	7,790	13	51	Anticona (summit).....	15,889	9	86
Tamboraque.....	9,744	9	60	Morococha.....	14,960	5	91
San Mateo.....	10,302	2.5	62.5	Oroya.....	12,224	20	111

MUSIC AND RADIO IN URUGUAY

By SIMON G. HANSON, S. M., A. M.,

Instructor in Economics, Harvard University.

THE Uruguayan nation, ever progressive and interested in cultural improvement, has made tremendous advances in the field of radio and music during the past five years. The latest development is that of a national opera company which gave its first performance on July 27, 1935. This follows the establishment of a fine symphony orchestra, the purchase of an auditorium for concerts, the setting up of two official broadcasting stations and an increase in the number of private stations from 6 to 38 since 1930, a commendable effort to create a library of phonograph records (*Discoteca*) for use in broadcasting and in the teaching of music, and a rise in the number of radio receiving sets in use from 14,500 in 1930 to over 80,000 today.¹

The law of December 18, 1929, established a Servicio Oficial de Difusión Radio Eléctrica (popularly known and hereafter referred to as Sodre) as a dependency of the Ministry of Public Instruction. An honorary directorate² was charged with acquiring a collection of phonograph records, taking over the existing radio station operated by the Ministry of War and Marine, and generally administering the official station. Funds were provided by import duties on radio apparatus and phonograph records,³ license taxes on amateur transmitting stations, and a penalty of 100 pesos for every performance in theatres or auditoriums which the proprietors refused to allow to be broadcast. On July 28, 1932, the income of the radio authority was changed from a variable amount to a subvention fixed at 180,000 pesos per year, which was raised on February 26, 1934 by 36,000 pesos.

The official radio station, which had been of small power, was reorganized and reopened under its new management on April 1, 1930. At first there was a minimum of 11 hours of transmitting daily and the programs consisted almost entirely of phonograph records. Lectures and live broadcasts were gradually substituted so that the present day average of records is from four to five hours. No commercial advertising is permitted by this station, whose programs are generally considered to be the best available—so much so that there is considerable

¹ Señor Inocencio Illa, Subdirector de los Servicios de Radiocomunicaciones, estimates the present number at 80,000 to 90,000; a questionnaire distributed among sellers of radio sets in 1930 is the basis of the estimate for the earlier date. Radio sets are of course much cheaper than they were and the excellence of programs creates a desire to own a radio.

² Composed of three members chosen by the Consejo Nacional de Administración, one by the Consejo Universitario, and one by the Consejo Nacional de Enseñanza Primaria y Normal.

³ 60 percent duty on radio electric apparatus and 60 percent on phonographic apparatus with an additional duty of 10 centavos per phonograph record. Funds were taken from general revenue to pay for the radio station taken over.

complaint from listeners in distant parts of the interior who are unable to get the station. The excess of advertising on private stations is much lamented and a bill has been introduced which would limit the amount of such advertising to 800 words per hour, or about 8.33 percent of the time. At present it is not uncommon to hear 3,000 to 4,000 words of advertising per hour and listeners protest vigorously against having 40 percent of the time devoted to such material. The official station provides broadcasting facilities for various auditoriums in the city and for many centers of instruction, including the university and the Office of Secondary Education. It is also hooked up with the Teatro Colón in Buenos Aires, from which many performances have been transmitted.

There is a second official station operated by the Bureau of Agriculture and supported by contributions of 50 pesos monthly from each of the autonomous State entities; these contributions meet the operating expenses of the station, and salaries are paid by the government. The contributing autonomous entities are given time on the air for discussions and lectures, of interest mainly to rural dwellers. For instance, the Bank of the Republic provides a talk on "Agricultural financing," the Institute of Industrial Chemistry on "This is the time to use fertilizers," the Mortgage Bank on "Land loans". The radio facilities tie in well with the efforts of the Bureau of Agriculture to promote better agricultural methods. The station has a policy of dedicating suitable programs each day to a commemoration of certain important events; it has a calendar fixing the various "days", such as National Independence Day, George Washington's birthday, and Pan American Day. Of the 38 stations registered in Uruguay on April 30, 1935, 24 were in Montevideo and 14 in the interior departments.

Radio officials are justly proud of their collection of records (*La Discoteca Nacional*). The collection of 8,375 carefully selected records is believed to be the finest in South America. A catalog is distributed at cost price which lists the name of composer, name of work, details of execution, and duration of the records. In addition, a number is assigned to each record cataloged and programs are announced by these numbers in radio guides and newspapers; the listener can turn to the catalog and with the information therein ascertain exactly when a certain record will go on the air. The records are also made available for music clubs, special assemblies of children, and musical study generally.⁴

Prior to 1931 there was no permanent well-organized symphony orchestra in Montevideo. Music clubs, or small groups of musicians

⁴ For an excellent discussion of music instruction in Uruguayan schools, see *Boletín Latino-Americano de Música*, tomo 1, *Fonografía pedagógica*, by F. C. Lange, pp. 197-262. The *Boletín* is a new publication of the Sección de Investigaciones Musicales, Instituto de Estudios Superiores del Uruguay.

informally banded together, occasionally presented concerts. But there was much jealousy between groups and the leaders usually lacked the power to enforce discipline. With the coming of talking pictures the musicians, most of whom had depended on regular employment in the theaters, lost their jobs; at the same time the radio authority was expanding its activities and it seized the opportunity both to provide employment for the men and to create a first class orchestra, known as the *orquesta sinfónica del servicio oficial de difusión radio eléctrica* (Ossodre). The building and equipment of the Teatro Urquiza were acquired, the auditorium was renamed *Estudio Auditorio*, and in adjoining annexes the *Disco-teca*, studios and other branches of the Sodre were established. The orchestra was subjected to the discipline of the radio, which necessitated starting on time and barring entrance to the auditorium during the performance of a number. Working on salary, the musicians were rigidly disciplined as to promptness at rehearsals, etc., and a system of fines and penalties was inaugurated. And after some experimentation with various conductors, the young Italian Signor Lamberto Baldi was brought from São Paulo and given authority to impose a severe artistic discipline.⁵ According to the editor of the *Montevideo Sun*, the French pianist Casadessus after playing at the *Estudio Auditorio* said that he had never seen such perfect discipline in any theater outside of Soviet Russia.

The orchestra, at present composed of 106 players, has given 109 concerts of which Signor Baldi has conducted 70. Attendance at the concerts is somewhat disappointing. The first policy was to give two concerts weekly—Saturday afternoon and Sunday morning—but the morning concerts were a failure. When Baldi took over the orchestra in October 1931 he changed to weekly concerts, and about a year later to fortnightly concerts. As the table below indicates, the reduction in number of concerts has raised the average attendance per concert to some extent. The audience seems to be limited to a small class of music lovers who faithfully attend most of the concerts; the highest attendance at a concert thus far was 2,262 on July 26, 1931. This was capacity. Admission seems to be very reasonable: 1 peso for an orchestra seat, with a 50 centavo or 1 peso increase when guest artists are added to the program. The failure of the orchestra to lower itself to popular concerts is believed by many to be responsible for the limited audiences; the popular concerts on July 16 and July 17, 1931, which brought out audiences far exceeding the average for the year, seem to be proof of this.

⁵ For a more complete discussion of the history of the OSSODRE, see "Boletín Latino-Americano de Música", tomo 1, "Organización musical en el Uruguay" by F. C. Lange, pp. 111-131. Statistics of number of concerts and attendance are taken from this article.

Concerts of the OSSODRE

Year	Number of concerts	Attendance
1931.....	37	41,848
1932.....	29	35,289
1933.....	21	28,966
1934.....	15	20,739

Having succeeded in putting together a fine orchestra, the enterprising officials of the Sodre turned their attention to operatic production. A teacher was engaged to train a chorus and after many months of preparation judged it ready for performance. Native talent was used as far as possible and outsiders were brought in for the other roles. The first production of *La Sonnambula* on July 27, 1935, was favorably received.

Thus the Uruguayan Government, already enjoying a reputation for successful participation in industry, has contributed in many ways to the cultural advancement of the community.

Eduardo Fabini

"TRISTE DE CAMPO"

This folk melody was adapted and harmonized by Eduardo Fabini, a gifted Uruguayan composer.

CHILEAN TRADE IN THE PACIFIC¹

By CARLOS SILVA VILDÓSOLA²

A VOYAGE of convalescence and rest from Valparaíso to Guayaquil and return in the same Chilean steamship has enabled me to observe, superficially it is true, Chilean commerce on the Pacific coast. . . . I traveled on the S. S. *Huasco* of the Compañía Sudamericana de Vapores, a comfortable ship although it has nearly 30 years of service to its credit. It belongs to that type of vessel of the Sudamericana which, by the exercise of constant care and intelligent reconditioning, seems always new.

The steamer left Valparaíso with a full cargo. On the lower deck were more than 300 head of cattle, 60 horses for the Peruvian rural police, mules, and other animals. The holds were filled with heavy shipments of flour, oats, wheat, potatoes, and butter (the Chilean product has displaced all rivals in certain parts of Peru and Ecuador), peas, lentils, apples, dried and preserved fruits, wine, beer, lumber for packing cases (already cut and marked), and certain leathers, such as patent leathers, which enjoy a splendid reputation on the coast. The stern was converted into a floating market with fresh vegetables and live poultry. There were also on board a few manufactured products from Chile—leather articles, crackers, hardware, etc.

These steamers carry the foodstuffs for the northern provinces of Chile and the greater part of the Chilean exports to Peru and Ecuador. But once they have arrived in Peruvian waters, they begin to transport the coastwise trade of Peru, too. The company pays the Peruvian Government for this privilege, which is beneficial not only to the steamship company, but also to Peruvian merchants and industrialists, who are assured of regular and trustworthy service. . . .

Beginning at Ilo the *Huasco* begins to take on Peruvian cattle raised in the fertile valleys in the interior of the country. . . .

In Mollendo the steamer loads leather, onions, woolen cloth from the Peruvian mills, whose output can compete with European textiles, and more and more cattle. A new shipment comes aboard at Chala, wine and agricultural products at Pisco and at Tambo de Mora, a smiling oasis which announces the existence of fertile valleys farther inland.

The coast continues for its whole length arid and desolate. The ports are not strictly worthy of the name, but small open bays where there are a few miserable houses (except Mollendo, a sizeable city on

¹ Translated from *El Mercurio*, Santiago, August 21, 1935.

² The author, one of the most noted Chilean journalists and men of letters, recently retired from the editorship of *El Mercurio*.—EDITOR.



VALPARAÍSO HARBOR.

Viewed from one of the city's hills, the bay, dotted with numerous and varied craft, is a picturesque sight.



A COMMERCIAL THOROUGHFARE IN VALPARAÍSO.

Through Valparaíso, the chief port of Chile, flows the greater part of the republic's foreign trade.

an open, rocky coast where the waves dash high) and a mole from which launches put out, bobbing up and down on the eternal swell which moves in great lazy waves all along the littoral, where boats have more motion at anchor than on the high seas. The difficulties of loading and unloading cargo are enormous, but they are all overcome by the astonishing skill of the Peruvian longshoremen and the practice and careful handling of the Chilean crew.

At Callao everything is different. The Peruvian cattle are unloaded with the Chilean horses and a great deal of merchandise from our country, and cargo for northern Peru is put aboard. There are even crated and uncrated automobiles, chassis for trucks, and the products of Peruvian petty industries. The passenger list also changes; few of those who came aboard at Valparaíso remain, but many Peruvians embark. . . .

Beyond Callao the ports of Casma, Samanco, Chimbote, and Salaverry receive their Peruvian cargo, and the steamer takes on shipments of raw sugar as ballast at Chicama, Pacasmayo, Etén, and Pimentel, the remaining Peruvian ports at which the steamer stops.

I wish to make special mention of our trade with Ecuador, of which the *Compañía Frutera Sudamericana* is the guiding spirit. That important Chilean enterprise is not appreciated in its own country as it deserves for its energetic spirit of enterprise and for its service to Chilean industry in general. The company not only exports, as every one knows, Chilean fruits and imports tropical ones grown on its own estates in Ecuador, but also acts as the enthusiastic agent for whatever Chilean products are in demand.

A visit to the offices and warehouses of the fruit company in Guayaquil gives an idea of this commerce. The most heterogeneous merchandise is piled up there. There are butter, shovels and pumps, fruit juice and women's gloves, condensed milk and wine, and a large assortment of small articles which are being advertised and sold.

In Guayaquil the *Huasco* received the major part of its cargo for the return trip: fruit from Ecuador, nearly all grown by the fruit company. At the same time it loaded unhulled rice to be delivered at Peruvian ports having hulling machinery, and polished rice and other articles for Chile.

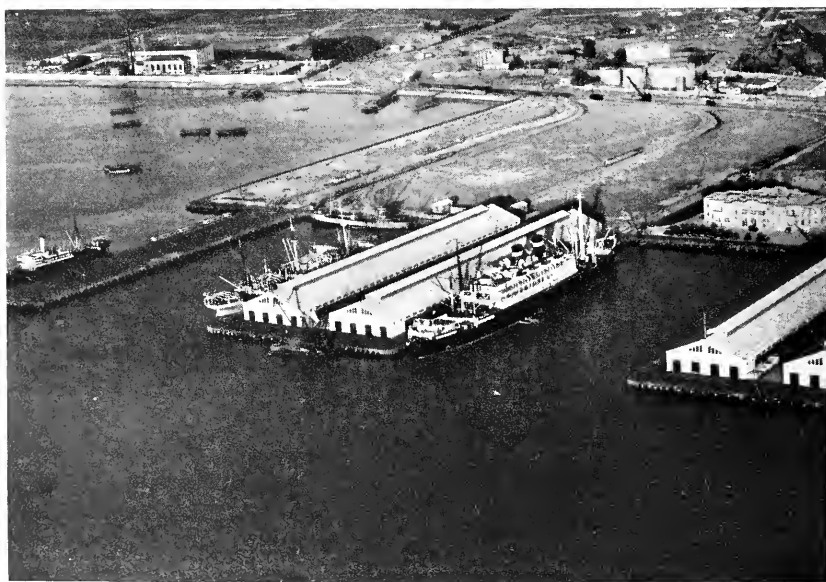
On the return trip, more Peruvian cattle are put on board to be unloaded at Callao, and especially sugar and more sugar until on our trip there were 20,000 bags. Again Peruvian passengers go from one port to another, and to Callao or from that point south the different agricultural regions of Peru send their products. And all along the way we leave Ecuadorean rice, bananas, pineapples, and oranges from Guayaquil without diminishing the cargo bound for Chile.

The boat again in Chilean waters, Arica delivers fresh vegetables from the valleys of Lluta and Azapa and cotton from Lluta, and the



THE MOLLENDO WATER FRONT.

A difficult port for the transferring of passengers and handling of cargo is Mollendo, on a rockbound section of the Peruvian coast.



Courtesy of Frederick Snare Corporation.

DOCKS AT CALLAO, PERU.

With the inauguration of the new port works late in 1934 Callao became one of the best ports on the Pacific coast of South America.

oil seeds grown in quantities by the energetic and meritorious Don Julio Fuenzalida; farther south new bags and quarter casks come on board, and the valleys of Huasco and Coquimbo send sheep, dried fruit, fine wines, figs for making coffee(!), olives, and other products.

When the *Huasco* docks again in Valparaíso, it is laden to capacity, and the captain and crew, down to the steward and cook—interested in a percentage of the freight and passages according to the new and intelligent regime of the company—cast their accounts as to how much will be received for this trip, in which thousands and thousands of tons, dozens and dozens of passengers, have been transferred, and nothing has been lost, nothing spoiled, and there have been no extra



FRUIT BOATS ON THE GUAYAS RIVER AT GUAYAQUIL.

Fruits, grown in Chile and Ecuador, form a goodly portion of the coastwise trade.

expenses. Every one has the air of having finished a successful campaign. The officers and crew are agents of Chilean commerce, the foundation in good times and bad of a great national industry, who kept on with their work even in times when the company was losing money, but are pleased now at the prosperity it is achieving. . . .

And now the *Huasco* will continue south as far as Corral, take on coal in Lota, and return to follow the Humboldt current as a messenger of trade and of good will.³

³ For statistics on the Chilean Merchant Marine, see p. 867.

SIMÓN DE IRIONDO

By EDUARDO FERNÁNDEZ OLGUÍN

THE city of Santa Fe, the capital of the Argentine Province of the same name, recently commemorated the fiftieth anniversary of the death of Dr. Simón de Iriondo, a statesman of heroic stature whose reputation as a man and as an administrator extended far beyond the limits of his native province and even of his nation.

He died in the fullness of his powers, after participating with dignity and unselfishness in both provincial and national affairs for more than 20 years. His premature death left a gap difficult to fill: calm and unruffled in temperament, idealistic and hardworking, he discharged his duties honorably when the country was passing through a difficult period. In addition to continuous revolutionary agitation, grave problems of an economic nature were then testing the tranquillity of the Republic. To him was due the credit for promoting the settlement of the Province of Santa Fe, constructing railways, and building the first grain elevator in South America.

Endowed with a talent only granted to privileged spirits, and possessed of great personal charm, he was called to fulfill a great destiny; in the course of his brilliant public life, he attained through sheer merit prominent positions in which he could serve his province and his country with ability and distinction.

Soon after leaving university halls with his law degree he entered politics in the Province of Santa Fe, and shortly thereafter was appointed judge of the Appellate Court and some time later a member of the Provincial Cabinet under Pascual Rosas, in 1861.

It is impossible, within the narrow limits of a single article, to follow this eminent citizen through all the phases of his notable public career. Therefore we shall have to be content with pointing out the intensive task accomplished by this progressive administrator during his two terms as chief magistrate of the Province.

Elected governor for the period 1870-73, Dr. Iriondo's principal achievement in that capacity was the encouragement of colonization as a means of coping with the Indians, who had taken possession of the richest regions and were committing every kind of outrage, thus keeping all parts of the province from enjoying the advantages and benefits of civilization.

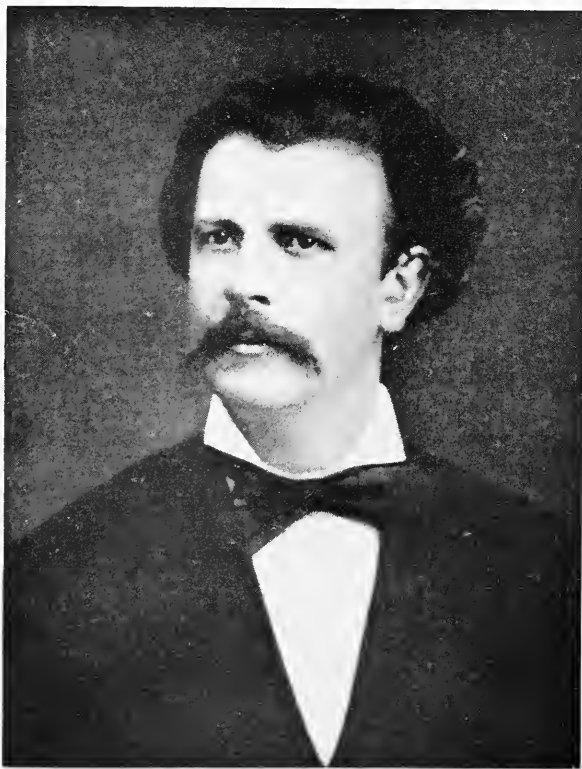
Colonization in Santa Fe really began soon after the Battle of Caseros, when in 1856 Don Aarón Castellanos, a sturdy pioneer, founded what is today the progressive colony of Esperanza. In 1872, during Dr. Iriondo's administration, a new impetus was given to

establishing settlements in the Province, and from that period its numerous agricultural centers may be said to date. Today those centers are true storehouses of wealth.

The activities carried on during Dr. Iriondo's administration had repercussions abroad and stimulated an extraordinary immigration movement which increased as time went on. This discreet official encouragement of colonization fostered private initiative, and many business organizations, trusting the guarantees offered by the Santa Fe government, invested their capital in agricultural enterprises there.

SIMÓN DE IRIONDO.

The fiftieth anniversary of Iriondo's death was commemorated not long ago in the Province of Santa Fe, Argentina. To his achievements as a citizen and Governor of Santa Fe are due in large part the colonization and development of the Province.



Courtesy of Eduardo Fernández Olguín.

An inevitable element in Dr. Iriondo's settlement program was the construction of railroads and the establishment of banks with foreign capital. At the same time the governor contracted a loan, duly authorized by the legislature, in order to establish the Bank of the Province of Santa Fe, which has grown until at present it is a powerful institution with many branches throughout the Province.

When Dr. Iriondo ended his term as governor, Dr. Avellaneda, who had been inaugurated President of the Republic in 1874, appointed him Minister of the Interior. In that position he continued to devote all his energies to colonization.

In 1878 Dr. Iriondo was again elected to rule the destinies of the Province—whose constitution had been amended to permit this—for a 4-year term. In the same year, in the message he read at the opening session of the legislature, he referred to the work to which he had devoted himself so patriotically in these words:

“We have been able to evaluate in theory and in practice the advantages of immigration and of colonization by Europeans. For 10 years I have given this important subject the greatest care and preferential attention in the positions, official or private, which I have held, both in the Province and in the nation, and I am more firmly



Courtesy of Eduardo Fernández Olguín.

A WHEATFIELD IN SANTA FE.

During Iriondo's second term as Governor of the Province, 1878-1882, the annual wheat yield increased from 48,067 to 136,669 tons. The construction of South America's first grain elevator at Rosario was the result of his initiative.

persuaded every day of the necessity of developing more vigorously such settlement in our land.”

With this object firmly in mind, he could aver with patriotic satisfaction that the 5,000 settlers who were working the land ten years before had been increased by 1878 to an army of 30,000, and that by fighting the wilderness they had brought to the region progress in all its multiple aspects.

As in his previous administration, he took a great interest in the construction of railways as a means of facilitating the transportation of the cattle and harvests produced in the settlement.

"I should be happy," he said, "if it were given to me to leave firmly established a work as important as this as the major evidence of the progress in the colonies during this second period of my administration. We must look ahead and avoid any congestion of produce; we must assure a convenient market abroad by providing easy and adequate transportation to the principal ports of the Province on the Paraná River, so that our products may find their natural outlet abroad."

With true statesmanlike vision and with the utmost faith in the economic development of the country, Dr. Iriondo not only actively encouraged colonization on a large scale, effected the construction of railway lines, and attracted capital for all this, but also took steps to make it possible to store the crops properly. In this respect he was a true pioneer in the construction of grain elevators at a time when even many European nations did not have them.

In his message to the legislature in 1879 he referred to that fact as follows: "A society has been organized in Rosario to erect a structure which will offer producers safe storage for their crops, improved handling, facility in marketing, and cheap loading and transportation."

In response to the ideas set forth by Dr. Iriondo, a corporation was formed, its shares subscribed by both national and foreign capital; in 1881 its first grain elevator began to function on the bluffs of Rosario. This was a seven-story building called "Los Graneros", with a tower 60 feet high, and a capacity of 5,250 tons of wheat. It was equipped to receive, weigh, classify, clean, and load into the hold of a vessel 60 tons an hour.

El Diario for December 22, 1881, said of this achievement: "These grain elevators fill a deepfelt need in Rosario, for this city is the focal point for the embarkation of all the grain harvested in the settlements not only throughout the Province of Santa Fe, but also in the interior Provinces; grain has to pass through Rosario on its way to the Buenos Aires market or to Europe.

"The grain elevators of Rosario, as we have said, are an honor to the Province, and even to the Republic at large, which is the first in South America to have such facilities."

The progressive program carried out by Governor Iriondo brought far-reaching results. In 1872 the Esperanza colony produced 2,250 tons of wheat and 1,950 of corn; San Jerónimo, 1,500 of wheat and 1,200 of corn; and San Carlos, 4,500 of wheat and 415 of corn.

When Dr. Iriondo was elected governor for the second time in 1878, there were 51 colonies in the Province with a total population of 24,293 inhabitants; in 1882, when his term of office was over, there were 85, with 54,860.

The area sown to wheat alone, not to mention other cereals, was as follows during the period between 1878 and 1882:

Year	Area sown	Yield	Year	Area sown	Yield
	<i>Acres</i>	<i>Tons</i>		<i>Acres</i>	<i>Tons</i>
1878-----	294, 780	48, 067	1881-----	457, 086	71, 035
1879-----	310, 653	88, 645	1882-----	450, 303	136, 699
1880-----	336, 050	50, 536			

The total value of the wheat produced in this period was approximately 26,000,000 gold pesos.

Cereal production, as has been seen, was growing in equal proportion, and it was in 1878 that an event worthy of mention occurred: the first shipment of wheat to foreign countries from the port of Rosario on April 12. To Dr. Iriondo, then, fell the honor of having the first exportation of wheat, 4,500 tons, take place during his administration; this amount increased to 25,000 tons in 1879 and totaled 100,000 tons in 1883.

During his last term as governor of the Province of Santa Fe, Dr. Iriondo's activities had a marked effect on the development of the national economy, since it was then that the exportation of cereals abroad, to which I have just referred, was begun. That event spoke most eloquently for the productive possibilities of the country, still at an early stage in their development.

President Avellaneda, referring to that event, said to him, "The presence of our cereals in European markets is the chief event of this period. It should be marked by a national holiday, to be called Labor Day or National Grain Day."

And in giving to Congress an account of his administration in that year, Dr. Avellaneda said: "Today we are exporting grain to European markets, and the freighters which carry it set out from colonies composed of European immigrants. This trade is just beginning, and in a short time will assume great proportions."

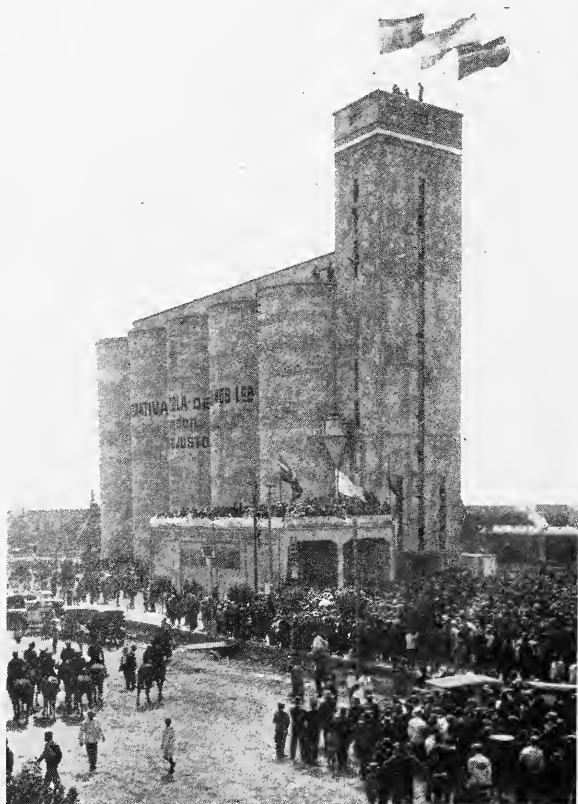
The public administrative accomplishment of the eminent citizen who is the subject of this tribute earned from Sarmiento, a formidable political opponent and a brilliant thinker generally considered to be as parsimonious with his praise as generous with blame, the tribute herewith transcribed:

"The name of this illustrious citizen is associated in contemporary history with the extraordinary progress in which the Province of Santa Fe has led the way, so to speak, for other Provinces in the agricultural and industrial rehabilitation which is giving us our true rank as this America of ours develops. When my country honored me by entrusting its interests to my care, I found Dr. Iriondo Minister of the Interior and later governor of the Province. Since that time the

Province of Santa Fe has been the mainstay and bulwark of the Argentine nation. The spirit of Iriondo was evident everywhere. That period passed, leaving, like the alluvial deposit of great floods which threaten for a moment to bring only ruin and devastation in their wake, the prosperity of which Santa Fe is boasting, the 600,000 tons of wheat which now pass through its grain elevators, and the reserves of commerce and industry which assure the wellbeing of a million men."

A GRAIN ELEVATOR.

The town of Firmat, Santa Fe Province, recently witnessed the inauguration of this elevator of 7,000 tons capacity.



Courtesy of Eduardo Fernández Olguín.

The political activity of this eminent Argentine was open to the criticism of his bitter political enemies, but his achievements were recognized even by them—and are still indelibly and incontrovertibly engraved on the pages of the economic history of the Republic.

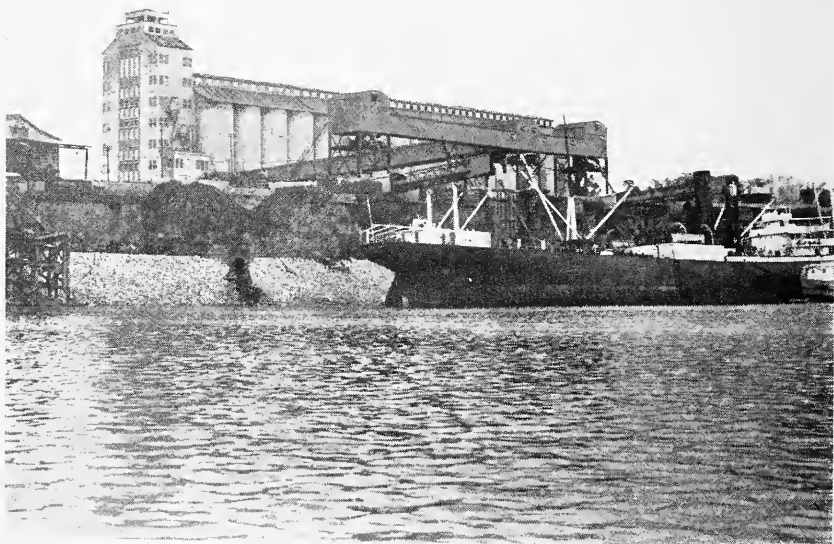
That is why today, more than half a century after his early death, his name is recalled with respect and admiration by his fellow citizens of all shades of political opinion.

Well could another illustrious compatriot, Dr. Bernardo de Irigoyen, say at the time of Iriondo's death:

"Sixty colonies and 60,000 immigrants, contented and happy, the value of land multiplied a hundred fold, towns and cities such as Rosario, flourishing and great, institutions reorganized according to the most liberal principles of scientific Government, education available to all, are accomplishments which, like other similar ones, will perpetuate the name of the man who bent every effort to realize them.

"National peace and order are also greatly indebted to Dr. Iriondo. He helped to maintain them in difficult times and troubled days: by his firmness and ability in the councils of the Government of which he was a part, by his ease and sympathy of speech in Congress, by his activity and his energy on the scene of action when it was necessary for him to enter it."

Such in rough outline was one of the most important aspects of the political activity of this eminent statesman, who has long waited perpetuation in bronze, and whose memory occupies a prominent place in the hearts of his fellow citizens.



Courtesy of Eduardo Fernández Olgüín.

AN ELEVATOR AT ROSARIO.

This 80,000-ton capacity elevator is typical of those at Argentina's second port, through which much of the grain export passes.

ART IN PARAGUAY

THE history of art in Paraguay should begin with the Conquest, the period of the earliest well-defined artistic manifestations which later spread and developed along the Río de la Plata. The Franciscans and Jesuits stimulated the esthetic sense of the natives, who were naturally of an artistic temperament.

The influence of the art schools established in the early Franciscan and Jesuit missions in Paraguay is to be found in the marvelous works in San Ignacio, Santa Rosa, San Juan, and Loreto, as well as in the churches in Yaguarón, Piribebuy, Capiatá, Atyrá, and other towns where remains of the art of that epoch exist. Some of the works still extant faithfully reflect the plateresque and churrigueresque styles of Spain, while others are decidedly native in character, interpretations of European art by the sensitive and naïve Guaraní Indians, subjected by the Conquistadors.

Fragments of the works of that period are to be found in the mission churches; many of these are still unfinished, because of the expulsion of the Jesuit fathers, first by Carlos III of Spain in 1768, and later by the dictator José Gaspar Rodríguez de Francia in 1817.

In ruined churches pediments with saints carved in stone are still to be seen, as well as pulpits, fonts, and seats. The greatest degree of perfection in woodcarving was reached in the magnificent retables, some in a plateresque low relief, others in a churrigueresque baroque, with ornamentation in high relief. The figure carving on these works is admirably done. The native artists, naturally influenced by their masters, filled their homes as well as the churches with saints, carved with exquisite technique and expression.

In many of the later works, however, the style of the plastic arts became decadent, especially in some copies of retables, with a conventionalized flora as decoration. Such motives were used even more in silverwork and weaving.

Of the painting, apart from some canvases which were hung over the altars, little has been preserved. But these pictures are of great interest for their composition and for the expressive faces.

The Guaraníes of that period were, moreover, very fond of music and singing. The double musical heritage of Paraguay—Spanish and Guaraní—dates from that period, and is a delightful blend based on the characteristic and haunting native music.

A period of artistic stagnation followed, and lasted for about 25 years. There was an artistic renaissance after 1840 during the administration of Carlos Antonio López, when many churches were built and decorated with sculpture and painting.



Courtesy of the "Revista de la Sociedad Científica del Paraguay."

ALTAR OF THE CHURCH OF SAN ROQUE, YAGUARÓN.

A fine example of colonial art in Paraguay is the interior of this church in Yaguarón, built between 1670 and 1720. Brilliant with gold and color, the altar is of unique design. The steps and arches of the retablo recede to a figure of the Virgin against a sunburst background.

López sent several young men to Europe to study the fine arts, engineering, and science. At the same time he contracted for the services of foreign professors and technical experts. During that period he began the construction of the Government Palace, the Oratorio, the national theater, arsenals, and private buildings severely classical in style, under the supervision of the Italian painter and architect Raviza. This artist had several able pupils, and persuaded the López government to send some of the most talented to Europe. Among the painters thus privileged were Aurelio Garcías and Saturio Ríos. The former studied in France with David, and among his works the portraits of Carlos Antonio and Marshal López are well known. Ríos went to Italy, where he studied engineering also.

At the beginning of the War with the Triple Alliance these artists returned home, with all the other Paraguayans then abroad, to serve in technical or cartographic offices, according to their training and ability. In addition to being an excellent painter, Ríos was an amateur engineer. During the war he invented a simple telephone apparatus which proved of the greatest value to the army. In the course of the fighting he was taken prisoner. When his exceptional talents as an artist were recognized, he was made painter at the Royal Court of Pedro II of Brazil, but later returned to his own country to become a deputy. In that capacity he was instrumental in awakening a great interest in the arts.

After the war the practice of the arts was stimulated by the arrival of the Italian painter and musician Luigi Cavedagni. He and Saturio Ríos had a few pupils between them, among whom Justo Pastor Ramírez was the most talented. The young man was sent to Montevideo to finish his studies under the masters Blanes and Barofio.

After Ramírez returned to Paraguay he devoted himself to teaching in the primary and secondary schools. During that period several young men were sent to Montevideo to attend the art schools there. One of his pupils in whom Professor Ramírez observed special ability was a boy of 8 named Pablo Alborno. He recommended that the lad be sent to art school in Montevideo to study painting. Alborno's parents consented, and he studied there under Professors Barodio and Somabilla, receiving the diploma of honor at the age of 13. On his return to Paraguay he specialized in mural painting, and also did some landscapes and portraits.

Meanwhile, the great Italian landscape painter and ethnologist, Guido Boggiani, had journeyed from Rome to Paraguay to continue his anthropological studies. Boggiani, to whose enthusiasm the founding of the Paraguayan Institute was in great measure due, brought a vigorous impulse to the nascent artistic expression of the country. He proposed that the Paraguayan Institute, then the cultural center of the country, should sign contracts with foreign



Courtesy of the artist.

"LAPACHO IN FLOWER", BY PABLO ALBORNO.

professors. This was done, and among those who came were Hector Da Ponte, for painting, Alfredo Da Ponte, for gymnastics and fencing, and Nicolino Pelegrini, for music.

Boggiani also became interested in some of the young men of marked talent and suggested to the Government of General Escurra that they be sent to Europe to complete their studies. During that administration, therefore, five fine arts and five engineering fellowships were established, the recipients to be chosen by competitive examination given under the auspices of the Paraguayan Institute. Pablo Alborno and Juan Samudio were selected to go to Europe to study painting, Carlos Colombo sculpture, and Fernando Centurión music. The first three entered the Royal Academy of Fine Arts of Rome, the fourth studied in Belgium. The paintings submitted by Alborno and Samudio (by the former in 1904, by both in 1906 and 1907) were the first work of Paraguayan artists to be hung in the annual international exhibition at Rome. Other Paraguayans who received fellowships for study in Rome at about that time were the sculptor Julián Sánchez and the painters Joaquín Almeida, Reinerio

Pérez, and Modesto Delgado Rodas, a young man with an excellent record at the Academy in Buenos Aires.

Alborno and Samudio returned to Paraguay early in 1909, and in March held an exhibition of the work they had done abroad. The two artists established the first school of painting in the country to be subsidized by the Government; its present headquarters are the Paraguayan Athenaeum. Among the students trained in this school were the architect Miguel Ángel Alfaro and the painter Jaime Bestard. Alfaro studied on a fellowship in Italy, where he won first prize in the Royal Academy at Naples. Bestard went to Paris, and his work exhibited there was highly praised by the critics. Remberto Giménez studied music on a foreign fellowship.

Alborno and Samudio submitted canvases to the international exhibition in Buenos Aires in 1910, the former receiving a silver medal for his painting *Las Partidas a las Cartas*, the latter a bronze medal for *Puente Canónica, Venecia*. The work of both artists was warmly praised by the press. During the last 25 years these and other Paraguayan artists have exhibited singly or in groups in other parts of the Americas, where their works have been favorably received. Among the younger artists whose work has become known abroad are Julián



Courtesy of Pablo Alborno.

"ARROYO DE PIRIBEBUI", OIL BY JUAN A. SAMUDIO.



"BEATRIZ", BY JAIME
BESTARD.

Courtesy of Pablo Albornoz.

Campos Cervera, a painter and etcher who has recently done notable work in ceramics, and Julián de la Herrería, who has also specialized in ceramics.

The first exhibition of painting and sculpture by Argentine artists to be held in Paraguay was held in the Casa Argentina in 1929, and in the same year an Uruguayan exhibition was also arranged. In 1933, the first Spring Salon of Paraguay was held, with both native and foreign artists represented. It is hoped that by making the salon an annual affair a greater impetus will be given to educating the public in the arts, although at the present time there is already much aesthetic appreciation. Since the Paraguayans are sensitive as a people and their taste is sound, the young men who have been well prepared in arts and sciences—music, painting, sculpture, architecture, and voice, as well as the different branches of science—have an educated and sympathetic audience.

The applied arts are also enjoying a renaissance. The decorative motifs designed by Señora María Elisa Weyer de Albornoz and based on the native flora are illustrative of the splendid achievements in that field.

Because Paraguay lacks a fine arts academy, more attention is given to art in the secondary schools, where sketching and design are required subjects. Instruction is given by Pablo Alborn, Hector Da Ponte, and Jaime Bestard.

Paraguay also boasts a private art gallery and museum. It was founded by the late art patron Juan Silvano Godoy, and is now under the direction of Dr. Viriato Díaz Pérez, a professor of philosophy and belles lettres, and Roland and Quinto Godoy. It contains canvases by Murillo, Tintoretto, Fabretto, Moreno Carbonero, Miquetti, Poussin, Rusiñol, and many other well-known artists. The library connected with the museum has been rated third in South America.

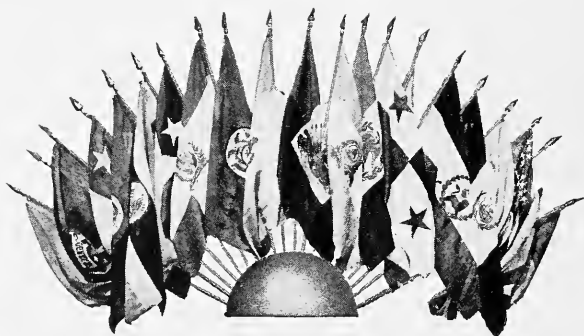
Art in Paraguay has been stimulated in a healthy manner by the establishment of this art center and by the influence of the young men sent to Europe during the last 30 years. The effects of foreign fellowships have been in Paraguay similar to those in such other American Republics as Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, El Salvador, and Uruguay, where many of the men and women who have received from their Governments the benefits of foreign travel and training are the outstanding artists of their generation.



"THE GREAT CITY RESPLENDENT", CERAMIC BY JULIAN DE LA HERRERIA.

An aboriginal theme inspired the decorative motif for this plate designed by Paraguay's outstanding ceramist.

From "La Nación", Buenos Aires.



PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

Second Assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History.—At the invitation of the Government of the United States, the Second Assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History met in the building of the Pan American Union from October 14 to 19, under the chairmanship of Dr. W. W. Atwood, president of Clark University, who is president of the executive committee of the institute. Dr. Pedro C. Sánchez, director of the institute, attended as a member of a distinguished Mexican delegation, headed by Dr. Francisco Castillo Nájera, Ambassador of Mexico in the United States. Other countries were also ably represented, and many brilliant papers were read. A more complete account will be given in an early issue of the BULLETIN.

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Venezuela y su actual régimen.—The Minister of Venezuela in Washington, Dr. Pedro Manuel Arcaya, has presented to the Library two copies of his new and interesting work, *Venezuela y su actual régimen*. He writes as an observer of and a partaker in the events of the last half century. He furthermore gives a description of Venezuela's constitutional history, as a background for the contemporary scene.

Brazilian acquisitions.—Among the volumes received in a large shipment from the Bibliotheca Nacional in Rio de Janeiro were the three concluding volumes of Ruy Barbosa's monumental work, entitled *Commentarios á constituição federal brasileira*. The set consists of six volumes, of which the first was published in 1932. Homero Pires is the editor. Other titles of interest in this shipment are: *Anchieta*, by Jorge de Lima; *O negro brasileiro—ethnographia, re-*

ligiosa e psychanalyse, by Arthur Ramos; *Minha formação*, by Joaquim Nabuco (the first volume of his complete works, in course of publication by the Companhia Editora Nacional, of São Paulo); *Primeiras noções de Tupi*, by Plinio Ayrosa; *O trabalho alemão no Rio Grande do Sul*, by Aurelio Porto; *O intendente Camara—Manoel Ferreira da Camara Bethencourt, e Sá*, by Marcos Carneiro de Mendonça; and three additions to the "Braziliana" series of the Bibliotheca Pedagogica Brasileira on Brazilian meteorology, archaeology and phytogeography, respectively.

Library science.—Increasing interest in library science is evidenced by the publication of more books in Spanish on this subject. School libraries form the topic of a practical handbook by Manuel Barroso, *La Biblioteca en la escuela; centro de actividades*, published in Buenos Aires, where Alfredo Cónsole's *Fundación y organización de bibliotecas* and *Hagamos del bibliotecario un profesional* have been issued in revised editions.

A fourth study of interest in the library field is *Bibliotecas de Cuba*, a brief résumé of the most important libraries in the island republic, made by the Comité France-Amérique de La Havane.

Other acquisitions.—In the list below are mentioned some of the other notable books received since last month:

Escritos y discursos [de] Roque Sáenz Peña, compilados por el Doctor Ricardo Olivera. . . . Buenos Aires, Casa Jacobo Peuser Ltda., editores, 1935. t. III: 515 p. 27½ cm. Contents.—La actuación nacional. [The son of a president of Argentina and himself a president, Roque Sáenz Peña served his country in several ways. He was in the diplomatic corps, represented the Argentine Republic at the South American private international law congress in Montevideo in 1889 and at the First International Conference of American States, was Minister of foreign relations in 1890, and served in various political offices between that time and his term in the Presidency, from 1910 to 1914, the year of his death. This volume includes various writings and addresses in the field of international policies from 1875 to 1914, as well as chapters entitled *La actuación internacional* and *La presidencia* which are supplemental to the first and second volumes, respectively. A long biography by Dr. Olivera and a brief bibliography are included.]

El noventa; una evolución política argentina [por] Juan Balestra. 2ª edición. Buenos Aires, Librería y editorial "La Facultad", Juan Roldán y cía., 1935. 270 p. 21 cm. [Sr. Balestra tells the full story of the revolutionary movement of 1890, from the beginnings of the critical period in 1889 to the final solution of the national problems.]

Mujeres de la historia americana [por] Hector Pedro Blomberg. Buenos Aires, Librerías Anaconda [1933] 264 p. 18½ cm. [Sr. Blomberg is the author of poetry and short stories. In this latest work he eulogizes many of Latin America's heroines.]

Fundación y organización de bibliotecas [por] Alfredo Cónsole. . . . Contiene una nueva clasificación bibliográfica, un plano para bibliotecas modernas y otras once ilustraciones. 2ª edición, corregida. Buenos Aires, Imprenta López, 1935. 2 p. l., [7]–213 p. illus. 18½ cm.

Haçamos del bibliotecario un profesional [por] Alfredo Cónsole. . . . Programa de estudio para una escuela de bibliotecarios [y] una nueva clasificación bibliográfica para bibliotecas y librerías. 2. edición, corregida. Buenos Aires [Ferrari hnos., impresores] 1934. 71 p. 18 cm.

La biblioteca en la escuela, centro de actividades [por] Manuel Barroso. . . . Buenos Aires, Editorial A. Kapelusz & cía., 1934. 3 p. l., [ix]-xi, 182, [2] p. illus. 20 cm.

Bibliotecas de Cuba [por el] Comité France-Amérique de La Havane. (Breve información relativa a las más importantes, según datos de la Corporación nacional del turismo y de la Comisión técnica bibliográfica de Cuba. . . .) La Habana, Editorial "Hermes", S. A. [1935] 22 p. 17½ cm.

Commentarios á constituição federal brasileira [por] Ruy Barbosa, colligidos e ordenados por Homero Pires. . . . IV-VI volumes. . . . São Paulo, Editores: Livraria academica, Saraiva & cía., 1933-34. 3 v. 24½ cm. Contents: IV volume, Arts. 54 a 62. Do poder judiciario. V volume, Arts. 63 a 72, §23. Dos estados, do municipio, dos cidadãos brasileiros, declaração de direitos (principio). VI volume, Art. 72 (conclusão) a 91 (disposições geraes) e disposições transitorias.

Anchieta [por] Jorge de Lima. Rio de Janeiro, Civilização brasileira, S. A., 1934. 211 p., 1 l. 19 cm. (Biblioteca brasileira de cultura. nº VII) [A biography of Padre José de Anchieta, the fourth centenary of whose birth was celebrated in Brazil in 1934. A three-page bibliography is appended.]

O negro brasileiro; ethnographia, religiosa e psychanalyse . . . [por] Arthur Ramos. Rio de Janeiro, Civilização brasileira, S. A., 1934. 303 p. 38 illus. (part plates) 18½ cm. (Bibliotheca de divulgação scientifica. vol. I.) [This is the first study of a series to be made by Prof. Ramos on the negro question in Brazil. He is the author of several works on psychoanalysis.]

Minha formação [por] Joaquim Nabuco. São Paulo, Companhia editora nacional; Rio de Janeiro, Civilização brasileira, S. A., 1934. x, 263 p., 1 l. 20 cm. (Edição uniforme das obras de Joaquim Nabuco. [I]) [This is the autobiography of Nabuco, first published in 1906. It covers the period from his college years, in the early seventies, until 1899.]

Primeiras noções de Tupi [por] Plínio Ayrosa. [S. Paulo, Typ. Cupolo] 1933. 162 p., 1 l. 18½ cm. [This text-book gives the usual grammatical and vocabulary lessons; in addition Sr. Ayrosa devotes parts of the work to the customs and other methods by which the Tupi language was formed. He will be recalled as the author of *Diccionario brasiliano-portuguez e portuguez-brasiliano*, listed in the BULLETIN for May, 1935.]

O trabalho alemão no Rio Grande do Sul [por] Aurelio Porto. . . . P. Alegre, Estabelecimento gráfico Sta. Terezinha, 1934. 277 p. plates, ports. 22½ cm. [An economic and historical study of the Germans in Rio Grande do Sul.]

O intendente Camara; Manoel Ferreira da Camara Bethencourt e Sá, intendente geral das minas e dos diamantes, 1764-1835 [por] Marcos Carneiro de Mendonça. Rio de Janeiro, Imprensa nacional, 1933. 1 p. l., 498 p. map. 24 cm. [Camara was one of the first to realize the full import of Brazil's mineral wealth. This long biography includes 73 valuable documents which the author used in compiling the work. An extensive bibliography of 22 pages is also appended.]

Meteorologia brasileira (esboço elementar de seus principaes problemas) [por] J. de Sampaio Ferraz. . . . São Paulo, Companhia editora nacional [1934] 588 p. 2 fold. diags. 19 cm. (Biblioteca pedagogica brasileira. Serie V: Brasileira. vol. XXXIII. [This work is divided into two parts, the first on scientific problems, and the second on the administration of the Brazilian meteorological service. A 46 page bibliography is included.]

Introdução á arqueologia brasileira; ethnografia, religiosa e psychanalyse [por] Anyone Costa. . . . São Paulo, Companhia editora nacional [1934] 348 p. plates (part fold.), fold. maps. 19 cm. (Biblioteca pedagogica brasileira. Serie V: Brasiliana. vol. XXXIV.) [A new text-book on Brazilian antiquities. This study also contains a bibliography of 13 pages.]

Phytogeographia do Brasil [por] A. J. de Sampaio. . . . Curso realizado no Museu nacional, em 1932, sob os auspícios da Universidade do Rio de Janeiro. . . . São Paulo, Companhia editora nacional, 1934. 284 p. illus. 19 cm. (Biblioteca pedagogica brasileira. Serie V: Brasiliana. vol. XXXV. [Another text-book, this study of Brazilian botanical geography covers all the zones of the country.]

Lo bello en el arte, estética aplicada; escultura, pintura, musica (apuntes y extractos) por Alejandro O. Deustua. Lima, Imprenta americana [1934?] 5 p., [9]-249, iii p. pl. (port.). 24½ cm. [This is the seventh of a series of works on aesthetics by Dr. Deustua, former Rector of the Universidad Mayor de San Marcos in Lima and professor of aesthetics in that institution.]

Evolución de la sanidad en el Uruguay, años 1927-34 (informe a la IX conferencia panamericana.) [por la Delegación del Uruguay] Montevideo, "Impresora Moderna", Larré & cía., 1934. 96 p. fold diagr. 24 cm. [This is a complete summary of the sanitary measures carried out in Uruguay from the time of the Eighth Pan American Sanitary Conference, held in Lima in 1927, until the time of the ninth conference, which convened in Buenos Aires in 1934. The delegation reports on the work done by each of the Government public health offices, on the general sanitary services throughout the republic and on the activities of Uruguay in international sanitary relations.]

Venezuela y su actual régimen [por] Pedro Manuel Arcaya. Washington, D. C. [Baltimore, Press of the Sun printing office, inc.] 1935. 217 p. 20 cm. [Mentioned at the head of these notes.]

La novela indianista en Hispanoamérica (1832-89) [por] Concha Meléndez. Madrid, Imprenta de la librería y casa editorial Hernando (S. A.), 1934. 199 p. 24½ cm. (Monografías de la Universidad de Puerto Rico. Serie A: Estudios hispánicos. n° 2.) [Srta. Meléndez divides this interesting study into four parts: (I) Orígenes de la novela indianista; (II) Novelas históricas; (III) Novelas poemáticas; (IV) La novela indianista de reivindicación social. She makes a survey of all the Hispanic-American novels containing Indian material. One chapter is devoted to foreign influences. An appendix lists the 24 novels on which she bases her study, with a full bibliographic note for each. There is also a bibliography of eighty entries.]

Bibliography on the Spanish home, by Esther J. Crooks . . . and Ruth W. Crooks. . . . [Baltimore, Md.?] 1935. 6 p.l., 70 numb. l. 28 cm. ["This bibliography deals with descriptions and illustrations of Spanish domestic architecture, household furnishings, and household equipment", Dr. Crooks and her sister tell us in the foreword. The bibliography is very helpful in finding such material inasmuch as anything of the type must be uncovered in general and sometimes apparently unrelated books.]

New magazines.—The new magazines or those received for the first time are listed below:

Boletín de estadística. Rosario, 1934. [n°] X, abril, mayo, junio, 1934. 72 numb. l. tables, diagrs. 28x22 cm. Quarterly. Editor: Jefe de la Oficina de estadística y archivo, Municipalidad del Rosario. Address: Jefe de la Oficina de estadística y archivo, San Juan 1018 (Altos), Rosario, República Argentina.

Algodão; revista de propaganda e defesa do algodão e demais plantas textéis de valor económico. Rio de Janeiro, 1935. Anno II, nº 1, janeiro de 1935. 38 p. illus. $26\frac{1}{2} \times 18\frac{1}{2}$ cm. Monthly. Editors: Alpheu Domingues and Nelson Lus-tosa. Address: Rua 13 de Maio, 35, 2º and.; Caixa postal, 1321, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

Boletim da Federação paulista das sociedades cooperativas de café. São Paulo, 1935. nº 4, 30 de abril 1935. 16 numb.l. pl. (port.) 32×22 cm. Semi-monthly. Address: Federação paulista das sociedades cooperativas de café, Rua Bôa Vista, 11, quinto andar; Caixa postal, 2659, São Paulo, Brasil.

Boletim official, Ordem dos advogados do Brasil, Secção do Rio Grande do Sul. Porto Alegre, 1935. nº 1, abril de 1935. 115 p. 23×16 cm. Editor: Conselho da Ordem dos advogados do Brasil, Secção do Rio Grande do Sul. Address: Pça. Senador Florencio, 22, 2º, Porto Alegre, Rio Grande do Sul, Brasil.

Moda e bordado. Rio de Janeiro, 1935. nº 117, março, 1935. 56 p. illus. (part col.) $31\frac{1}{2} \times 23\frac{1}{2}$ cm. Monthly. Address: Travessa do Ouvidor, 34; Caixa postal, 880, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

Vida; revista universitaria. Rio de Janeiro, 1935. nº 12, Anno II, março de 1935. 16 p. $32\frac{1}{2} \times 23$ cm. Monthly. Address: Praça 15 de Novembro, 101, 2º andar; Caixa postal, 249, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

El foro nariñés; órgano del Tribunal superior del distrito judicial de Pasto. Pasto, 1934. Año 1º, Segunda época, nº 95 y 96, diciembre 31 de 1934. [88] p. $24 \times 16\frac{1}{2}$ cm. Monthly. Editor: Luis B. López. Address: Tribunal superior del distrito judicial, Pasto, Nariño, Colombia.

La raza; primera revista diplomática de Centro América, dedicada al turismo hispanoamericano, industrias y comercio. San José de Costa Rica, 1935. Año III, nº 2526, agosto de 1935. 64 p. illus., ports. $34\frac{1}{2} \times 26$ cm. Monthly. Editor: Maximilian von Loewenthal. Address: Apartado 116, San José, Costa Rica.

Revista equatoriana. Quito, 1935. Año I, nº 1, 1º de agosto de 1935. 38 p. illus., ports. 31×22 cm. Address: a/c Talleres gráficos nacionales, Quito, Ecuador.

Actualidades; revista para todos. San Pedro Sula, Honduras, 1935. Vol. 1; nº 1, agosto 10 de 1935. 16 p. illus., ports. 38×27 cm. Weekly. Editor: Lucas Paredes. Address: Editorial Nuestro Criterio, San Pedro Sula, Honduras, M. D. Bromberg & associates, 19-25 West 44th Street, New York City, N. Y. (U. S. representatives.)

La revista; publicación de intereses generales. Panamá, 1935. Primera época, nº 1, 31 de julio de 1935. 16 p. $30\frac{1}{2} \times 22$ cm. Monthly. Editor: Guillermo McKay. Address: Apartado 85, Panamá, Panamá.

Archivo fitotécnico del Uruguay; publicación del Instituto fitotécnico y semillero nacional "La Estanzuela." Montevideo, 1935. Vol. I, entrega 1, 1935. illus., tables, diagrs. 28×20 cm. Irregular. Editor: Alberto Boerger. Address: La Estanzuela, Departamento de Colonia, Uruguay.



PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

MEXICAN-AMERICAN CLAIMS AGREEMENT

The following statement has been released by the State Department of the United States:

By a convention concluded between the United States and Mexico, April 24, 1934,¹ it was agreed that the special claims of American nationals against Mexico should be settled by a lump sum payment by Mexico to the United States, thus avoiding the necessity of having the claims passed upon by an international tribunal. The settlement was to be on the basis of the percentage of recoveries by six European powers having claims of the same general character against Mexico, namely, those arising in certain specified manner during the period of disturbed conditions in Mexico from November 20, 1910, to May 31, 1920, inclusive. The two Governments appointed representatives to determine the amount to be paid by Mexico, pursuant to the convention. The representatives have completed their work and have found that Mexico should pay to the United States \$5,448,020.14 on those claims now included in the lump sum settlement. The convention provides that the amount shall be paid in annual installments of \$500,000. The first installment was paid by Mexico on January 2, 1935.

RECIPROCAL TRADE AGREEMENT BETWEEN COLOMBIA AND THE UNITED STATES

A reciprocal trade agreement between the United States and Colombia was signed on September 13, 1935 by the Secretary of State and the Colombian Minister, Señor Don Miguel López Pumarejo, according to a joint statement issued by them. The agreement requires the approval of the Colombian Congress and ratification by the President of Colombia and approval and confirmation of the President of the United States. It will come into force 30 days after the exchange in Bogotá of the instrument of approval and confirmation and the instrument of ratification.

¹ For further details, see BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for February 1935.

Both countries engage to accord unrestricted and unconditional most-favored-nation treatment in respect of customs matters.

The agreement provides that certain products of Colombia, which represent a large percentage of total Colombian exports to the United States, shall continue to enjoy exemption from import duties in this country, and shall not be subject to import prohibitions, increased federal taxes, or increased customs charges other than duties.

Reciprocally, Colombia agrees to reduce its customs duties on an important percentage of products imported from the United States and not to increase its duties on certain other products imported from this country. Colombia also agrees to refrain from imposing import prohibitions, increased federal taxes, and increased customs charges on certain products of the United States.

The text, with an analysis of the general provisions and reciprocal concessions, was released simultaneously in the two countries on October 9. From the section headed "general trade background", in the release of the United States Department of State, the following paragraphs have been taken:

. . . There has been an appreciable decline in recent years of both exports and imports, but up to last year, United States exports to Colombia declined relatively more than imports from Colombia. Formerly, the value of United States exports to Colombia amounted to about 50 percent of the value of our imports from Colombia, but this ratio declined to a low of 17½ percent in 1932. Since that time there has been some improvement in both directions.

Coffee and crude petroleum constitute about 90 percent of total imports from Colombia, whereas exports to Colombia comprise a large diversity of products including machinery, motor vehicles and electrical equipment; iron and steel manufactures; textiles; animal and vegetable foodstuffs; pharmaceutical preparations; paints, and other chemicals.

Colombia is the world's second largest producer of coffee, the second largest source of coffee imports into the United States, and the world's leading producer of "mild" coffee. The "mild" coffee imported from Colombia is used principally for blending purposes. Imports from Colombia include also bananas, platinum, emeralds, tolu balsam, tagua nuts, and other secondary products.

MESSAGE OF THE PRESIDENT OF COLOMBIA

As a prerequisite to any effective action on the part of the Government to help the country, the present administrative machinery must be completely reorganized in order to simplify and coordinate government services so that they can function efficiently and economically, President Alfonso López told the Colombian Congress at its inaugural session last July 20. The Congress now in session is composed entirely of members of the Liberal Party, the Conservatives having refrained from voting at the last congressional election, and is expected to be virtually a constitutional convention to remove barriers to liberal social reforms. Under the present system, despite the efforts

of the preceding administration, President López said, the Executive and Legislative Powers lack the most elementary information about the country to guide them in solving its problems.—“There is not even a census to tell us accurately the number and status of the millions who inhabit our national territory.” Stressing the need for reform, the President said that in Colombia the question whether the State should intervene in private affairs is only theoretical: “In practice there is an insistent demand that the State intervene in everything, direct everything, regulate everything, support everything.” According to the Colombian constitution and laws, the State is all-powerful. The problem is to provide it with efficient machinery with which to exercise such power. That which it already has cannot function, yet it must take other duties, for the country, the President says, is undergoing a transitional period which began at the end of the last civil war (1903) and is the result of the adaptation of an incomplete and rigid colonial organization to an imported civilization which brought with it foreign capital, the development of public and private credit, means of communication, and great fluctuations in business activity.

Fortunately the disruption caused by these phenomena was not in vain. “At the cost of a great deal of waste and many mistakes which have mortgaged its credit for nobody knows how many years, Colombia is at last a united nation. . . . We have achieved the unification of the country through a network of highways and railways which enable the citizen of Nariño to come to Bogotá in three days and reach the Venezuelan frontier in six, and a system of airways which reduce to hours the days previously spent travelling on wheels. Moreover, national products coming from remote regions are making headway in the domestic market, thus establishing a national economy which is independent of the export trade; were it not for the steadying effect of this activity, the present low market price of coffee would have precipitated a general bankruptcy. All parts of the country are becoming known. We begin to exploit legendary regions, neglected for centuries, and as the exploitation of each of them begins, new effects are produced on markets and prices and a slow increase in general prosperity takes place.” But the vast territorial expansion now taking place in Colombia as the highways reach hitherto uninhabited regions also brings to the Government new problems and new responsibilities which it must be ready to face.

In bringing into contact with national civilization and culture the three fourths of Colombia's territory which, the President says, has hitherto been completely isolated, the Army will be given a new function besides those ordinarily attributed to armed forces: exploration and colonization. This special mission will include the construction of roads and buildings, the opening of farms, the making of agricultural and mineral surveys, and the establishment of mail services.

HIGHWAYS

Sixty percent, or 2,620 miles, of the roads included in the highway program of 1931 have already been completed with amazing results in the economic development of the country. The highway from Bogotá to Villavicencio is nearly finished. This road traverses the eastern Cordillera and opens up a fertile cattle raising region large enough to accommodate the present population of Colombia. Within two years the Administration plans to complete the road from Villavicencio to Puerto Carreño on the Orinoco, a distance of about 500 miles, which will open to colonization the rich and almost uninhabited eastern plains. This is in accordance with the Government's policy of building roads useful in developing the natural resources of regions which have been isolated from the central portion of the country. Special emphasis has also been given to roads leading to the frontiers. The Chocó region, the President says, will be connected with the interior by the Bolívar-Quibdó and Apía-Istmina roads, completing the connection with the road from Istmina to Quibdó, which will join the Atrato and San Juan rivers and thus provide a direct route between the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans.

Besides improving the Pasto-Popayán highway, which provides an outlet for the Department of Nariño, the Government will build a road from Pasto to Puerto Asís, the terminal for the recently established navigation services on the Caquetá and Putumayo Rivers, thus making an outlet to the Amazon for the mining and agricultural products of the Department. Provision is also made for the construction of the sections needed to establish communication between Florencia and Leticia.

Work is continuing on the two international highways which traverse Colombia: the Simón Bolívar Highway, which connects the Ecuadorean border with Venezuela, and the Pan American Highway, which coincides with the former in many places. Authorization for the construction of various other roads has been submitted to the Congress for consideration.

LAND POLICY

Under the present system of land tenure, President López said, the great majority of the titles to private property in Colombia are imperfect. The Administration will submit to Congress a law dealing with land tenure to protect those who cultivate their estates, no matter how extensive, but not those who leave the land fallow, and to enable those who settle on virgin lands to gain title to the plots they have under cultivation. The law will also regulate the relations between landholder and farm laborer.

FOREIGN CAPITAL

The Government is not hostile toward foreign capital, the President said, provided it is on the same footing as national capital. The gold, platinum, petroleum, and banana industries are today controlled by foreign capital and the country benefits only by the wages and income tax paid, for the money derived from the sale of these products does not return to Colombia. A mistake was made in granting concessions for the exploitation of natural resources, the President said, and the terms of future contracts must be more advantageous to the nation. In the meantime the Government, facing accomplished facts, is fulfilling existing contracts.

EDUCATION

One of the principal causes for the failure of Colombia to develop her natural resources profitably, the President said, is the result of a faulty educational system which produces a surplus of lawyers and physicians, leaving a dearth of technically trained men in industry and agriculture. The National University, he said, must no longer overlook the needs of the country. As a first step in its reorganization, he proposes to spend 400,000 pesos in the erection of buildings where all schools of the university can function as a homogeneous institution instead of being dispersed and unrelated to one another. This, the President believes, will permit the establishing of departments in the various sciences which can serve all branches of the university and instil a national rather than a regionalist spirit among the students coming from all parts of Colombia.

The new budget is to provide for the reorganization of primary education. The national Government, the President says, does not have the resources to build all the schools which the country needs, nor has it the right to set up a system of regional preference in their construction when schools are a peremptory need everywhere. Congress is asked to create a land surtax. With the proceeds of this each of the municipalities would build as many schools as it can under the supervision of the respective Department and the Ministry of Education. The national Government will equip them and will supply them with teachers and inspectors, trained in 14 normal schools distributed throughout the Republic. The cooperation of the departmental governments is also requested to maintain school lunch rooms to give proper food to children from the poorer classes. "The Government sets aside to help these children a sum which looms large for a poor country but which is paltry for the purpose."

To those who may oppose universal education because of their belief that all or many of the industrial and agricultural enterprises of the country are based on cheap, illiterate labor the President

replies that cheap, illiterate labor is responsible for the meagerness of the Colombian economic system and that the farmer and industrialist will not find markets for their products until the standard of living of millions of Colombians who lead a poor, unambitious life has been raised. The primary school, which is to be a health center under the leadership of the teacher, school inspector, doctor and dentist is expected to help considerably in improving conditions. "It is very difficult to get the adult peasant to submit to the most simple treatments to prevent illness or cure him of the diseases which are exhausting his physical strength. . . . It is almost impossible to induce him to change his diet if we do not have an agent in each hut, and the Government proposes to have an agent in each child educated in the Government primary schools."

Secondary instruction, relegated almost exclusively to private initiative, subventioned by the public treasury, is today in a chaotic condition, said the President. To remedy, in part, this situation, a decree has been issued regulating the issuance of secondary school certificates. A jury composed of representatives from the Ministry of Education, the National University and a delegate from the private secondary schools, is to say whether the student graduated from a private secondary school, or in future from the Government schools, is qualified to obtain the certificate which allows him to enter the university.



PRESIDENT CÁRDENAS REPORTS ON MEXICAN PROGRESS

Seizing upon the opportunity to reassert his full personal responsibility for the administration of national affairs, President Lázaro Cárdenas of Mexico gave a detailed account of the activities undertaken and the work accomplished by his Government during the fiscal year 1934-35, in a lengthy address delivered before the national Congress on September 1, 1935. "At the outset of my administration", he said, "and after its views regarding the strict enforcement of the Six-Year Plan had been made clear, there were unexpected political events which created a serious problem of general unrest and threatened to undermine the foundations of our republican regime." However, the situation was met promptly and squarely, and "this time the Revolution did not have to resort to violence in the house cleaning necessary for the fulfilment of its historic mission."

President Cárdenas proclaimed the Government's decision to give women workers equal rights with men in voting, as well as other privileges of citizenship. In addition to the fact that the Constitution and the civil, labor and agrarian laws impose the same duties and bestow the same privileges upon them as upon the male population, the President believes that "women are temperamentally equipped

to join sincerely and enthusiastically in a struggle so generous in purpose, placing aside all selfish interest." He expressed the hope that the women and young men of the nation would be organized to participate in the government's program for social improvement.

The Ministry of the Interior "took great care to see that the provisions of the Federal Constitution were observed, not only with regard to controversies between the branches of government in the different States, but also in cases where individual guarantees were infringed." It sponsored a campaign for the suppression of crime, combating gambling and other vices. Numerous villages were provided with urban services such as water supply, electricity, telephone, etc.

Mexico's relations with other nations, the President asserted, are cordial and have been placed on "a basis of mutual cooperation and frank understanding." Then he added: "In a spirit of Pan Americanism, the Government I represent will maintain close contact with the nations of the American continent, to strengthen the racial and cultural bonds which traditionally have existed between us." Mexican diplomats abroad have been instructed to be meticulously careful not to meddle in local matters; and Mexico, although granting hospitality to political refugees, will not be allowed to become a center of activities against other countries.

The financial policies of the Government and the happy results obtained therefrom when submitted to severe tests were proudly reviewed by the Chief Executive. He explained the circumstances which made necessary the currency reforms of last April, pointing to the steady increase in currency stock from an average of 412,442,000 pesos in 1934 to 431,434,000 in May, 1935, and then to 439,832,000 in the following month of June. The currency reserves established in 1933, which on March 31, 1935 reached a bare 119,000,000 pesos, jumped to 311,000,000 as a result of the Law of April 26, 1935, and on July 20, 1935, amounted to 320,000,000 pesos. The unprecedented increase in the price of silver brought about by the policies of President Franklin D. Roosevelt in the United States made the commercial value of Mexican silver money rise above its legal value. The problem, therefore, called for one of two remedies: "to raise the exchange or change the currency." The Government chose the latter course, with the result that the prevailing currency, partly paper, is favorably accepted and is backed by ample metallic reserves.

With reference to the foreign debt, President Cárdenas reiterated previous assurances that Mexico was desirous of meeting her obligations abroad. He added, however, that "any solution to this problem must be subject to the nation's ability to pay", and that "it would not be prudent to enter into agreements until the depression subsides" and the national credit is placed definitely on a firm basis. In the

course of the present year payments have been made of \$500,000 to the United States as an installment on the lump-sum settlement for damages incurred during the revolutionary period, and of 14,536,192.77 pesetas to Spain as part payment for new naval vessels purchased from her.

The National Bank of Agricultural Credit has extended considerably its many services, thereby benefiting thousands of small farmers and *ejidatarios*, according to the President's report. Promise was made of an earnest effort to adjust the taxation laws to the most modern principles.

The Department of National Economy added a new unit to its important services: the Bureau of Explorations, which has undertaken a census of the mineral and petroleum resources in the country, after having completed a survey of unexploited mining zones to determine whether or not they are susceptible of commercial development. Assistance has been given to small scale miners, and a system of cooperative societies established enabling the large masses of workers in the rural districts to enjoy the same benefits as those in the cities. The Department of Labor was very active in defense of the workers, seeking the merging of all groups into a single union for each trade or manufacturing unit, and the adoption of collective bargaining for labor contracts. A new labor law and a social security law were being drafted, according to President Cárdenas, who added that he would seek the views of both capital and labor, before their enactment.

In the field of education, the President pointed out that this year's appropriation for the nation's school system exceeded that of the previous year by 12,000,000 pesos, creating employment for 2,200 additional teachers. Work is going forward on the plans for establishing a polytechnic school; 10 new centers of indigenous education have been organized which, with those already in operation and 5 others soon to be opened, will make a total of 27; and special attention has been given by the administration to rural and night schools. President Cárdenas spoke of criticisms of Mexico's educational reforms, expressing absolute confidence that the people would accept and support the Government's program.

The increasing importance given to general health conditions in the nation may be gathered from the fact that the appropriation made in the current budget of expenditures for the Department of Public Health is 3,000,000 pesos more than last year's. Correspondence courses in hygiene have been instituted for the benefit of rural teachers, while the nation as a whole is reached in a general health campaign through printed pamphlets, newspaper articles and radio broadcasts. The work in the different localities has been most effective with the establishment of 50 health centers and traveling

brigades, and the vaccination of citizens in every part of the country. An Industrial Hygiene Service, autonomous in character, has been created to protect the health of workers in the cities as well as in the rural districts. One million and a half pesos has been set aside as an initial appropriation to provide pure drinking water to small towns and villages. A law was drafted, seeking coordination of federal, state and municipal sanitation work.

President Cárdenas stated that every effort was being made to complete the work mapped out for the present year in the vast irrigation program undertaken by the government, with an appropriation of 9,896,000 pesos. He listed 11 important dams which are now in operation or will be completed shortly, and many others for which plans are being drafted.

Mexico has made great strides in aviation. Six new concessions were granted this year either for new commercial lines or to improve others in regions where transportation facilities were most deficient. The present airline communication system of Mexico covers flight distances reaching a total of 10,311 miles, with 5,174 miles to be added soon.

Among other outstanding facts mentioned in the President's message are the distribution of about 11,657,800 acres of village common lands for the benefit of 317,469 *ejidatarios*; establishment of nurseries and collection of fauna and flora for a botanical garden and zoo in Chapultepec Park; conservation of the country's natural hunting and fishing resources; modernization of the telegraph system; and measures taken to improve the organization of the armed forces.—
F. J. H.

THE CHILEAN MERCHANT MARINE¹

Chile is essentially a maritime nation, owing to the geographical configuration of the country, which is from 60 to 225 miles wide and has a coast line of 2,300 nautical miles. This fact was recognized by the State when the independence of the Republic was declared and its sovereignty established, and it therefore adopted various measures designed to develop national shipping.

As a result, foreign vessels were attracted to its shores and an impetus was given to the incipient maritime commerce of that period.

Shortly thereafter, in 1819, the first Chilean shipping company was formed. It owned and operated the frigate *Carmen* and chartered other vessels which were sent on voyages to Peru, Central America, China, and India. During the same period, less daring shipowners sent Chilean ships to Buenos Aires and Rio de Janeiro.

¹ Adapted from Monthly Economic Survey of Chile, published by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Commerce, Santiago, Chile, May 1935.

But these efforts to develop a merchant fleet of its own were seriously threatened by the competition of foreign ships, and the government deemed it expedient to pass laws to lessen that competition to some degree. Such laws were passed in 1822, 1835, and 1836. With the protection thus afforded, the Chilean merchant marine received a new impetus and slowly it developed more vigorously.

By 1848, however, a noticeable decline was again apparent, owing to the strong current of emigration caused by the discovery of gold in California, which caused an exodus of both capital and seafaring men in search of more promising prospects.

This state of affairs went to such an extreme that the Government was forced to intervene once more; but this time, in order to stimulate the languishing coastwise shipping, it gave permits to foreign vessels to engage in that trade. These measures were only of short duration, and from 1851-67 effective aid was granted to put voyages along the coast by Chilean ships on a regular footing.

In 1870 the Chilean Steamship Company (*Compañía Chilena de Vapores*) was formed with the vessels *Maipú*, *Bíobío*, *Limarí*, and *Copiapó*. A little later, through a merger with the National Shipping Company (*Compañía Nacional de Vapores*), the South American Steamship Company (*Compañía Sudamericana de Vapores*) was formed. This is the oldest steamship company in Chile and the best organized.

Until the beginning of the twentieth century, the greater part of the merchant fleet consisted of sailing vessels, but from 1903 on, steamships have been in the majority. Since then, with but few exceptions, the national merchant fleet has grown year by year, as may be seen from the following table:

Year	Sailing vessels		Steamships		Total	
	Number	Tonnage	Number	Tonnage	Number	Tonnage
1822	40				40	
1848	105	12, 628			105	12, 628
1858	260	62, 210			260	62, 210
1868	19	2, 780	2	644	21	3, 424
1878	89	21, 029	25	10, 633	114	31, 662
1888	140	62, 694	37	18, 511	177	81, 205
1898	112	51, 748	50	25, 114	162	76, 862
1908	63	41, 204	96	53, 355	159	94, 559
1918	35	23, 381	95	46, 587	130	69, 968
1929	5	7, 521	72	82, 282	77	91, 803
1934	3	4, 183	105	142, 569	108	146, 752

The Great War of 1914-18 had important effects in Chile. Foreign vessels, which until the outbreak of the conflict had maintained regular schedules, suspended their services. This left maritime commerce in Chilean waters to tramp steamers and local companies, and naturally

brought a period of great prosperity and development to the Chilean mercantile marine.

When the Great War was over, however, foreign vessels again began to serve Chilean ports, and national shipping, which had grown to considerable proportions during the war years, found itself facing a decline in business. The Government was obliged to pass law no. 3841, of February 6, 1922, which reserves all coastwise traffic to vessels flying the Chilean flag. With this protection, the merchant marine is assured a slow but steady development.

Present coastwise services unite all Chilean ports from Arica to Magallanes. This service is divided into two routes: Magallanes-Valparaíso and Corral-Arica. This does not include the local lines in the southern zone, the Chiloé channels, and the northern zone, where vessels of small tonnage make up the fleets.

The Chilean merchant marine as of December 1934 consisted of 108 vessels, classified as follows:

	Registered tonnage
38 steamships, in coastwise and foreign trade.....	68, 800
49 steamships, in local and regional traffic.....	6, 119
12 colliers.....	17, 748
6 fishing vessels (whaling, etc.).....	407
3 sailing vessels.....	3, 912

SERVICE TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES

In 1873 the South American Steamship Company extended its services to Callao, Peru, and in the following year to Panama. At the present time it maintains a service from Corral, Chile, to Guayaquil, Ecuador, on a regular schedule and with stops at the major Peruvian ports. This service is weekly, and alternates freighters and passenger vessels.

The company also maintained a regular service from Valparaíso to New York from 1922 to 1931 with the express turbine liners *Aconcagua* and *Teno* and the motorship *Toltén*. Passengers and freight were carried on a regular monthly schedule. In the middle of 1931 the company was obliged to suspend the service because of the depression.

Regular sailings to New York were reestablished by the Chilean Inter-Ocean Navigation Company (Compañía Chilena de Navegación Interoceánica) in 1934. Large cargo vessels, with refrigeration facilities, and accommodation for 12 first-class passengers, sail once a month. The same company also has a regular service to Montevideo and Buenos Aires. The ships are of the same type as those on the New York run. Twelve trips a year are made, on a regular schedule.

Chilean vessels also visit Brazil at irregular intervals, stopping at all the southern ports and continuing to Rio de Janeiro.

Besides these regular lines, Chilean ships occasionally sail for European and South African ports and for Pacific ports in North America.

Company	Route	Ships		Class of service
		Number	Registered tonnage	
South American Steamship Company.	Chile-Peru-Ecuador.....	7	14, 176	Regular; cargo and passenger.
Chilean Inter-Ocean Navigation Company.	Chile-Argentina-Uruguay, Chile-Brazil.	4	12, 161	Regular; cargo and limited number passengers.
Chilean Inter-Ocean Navigation Company.	Chile-Cuba-New York.....	2	6, 000	Regular; cargo and limited number passengers.

LEGISLATION FOR MARITIME DEVELOPMENT AND SAFETY AT SEA

The national merchant marine can count on protective legislation especially as regards shipping in foreign trade; the Government grants subsidies for the maintenance and operation of these services. Two such subsidies are those granted to the lines operating via the Strait of Magellan to Brazil and through the Panama Canal to New York. Another law encourages the purchase of new ships in order to keep the fleet from being run down.

There is a special law regulating navigation in the Chiloé and Aysén Channels; this insures the maintenance of a regular schedule and the comfort and safety of the passengers.

As regards safety at sea, the Navigation Law of 1878 contains strict regulations for the accommodation and comfort of passengers. The law has been brought up-to-date by the supplementary regulations of 1929-30, which establish the necessary standards demanded by modern transportation of passengers by sea. Moreover, the sanitary laws and the public health authorities exercise strict vigilance on Chilean merchant ships to see that the standards set by the regulations are properly maintained.

WORK OF THE URUGUAYAN MINISTRY OF INDUSTRIES

A report has recently been published on the work of the Uruguayan Ministry of Industries from April 5, 1933, to March 18, 1935. The Ministry, which was entirely reorganized in March 1933, includes bureaus having to do with agriculture and stockraising, patents and trade marks, the post office and postal savings, as well as with industrial entities.

AGRICULTURE AND STOCKRAISING

The production of wheat and other grains has been one of the foundations of the national economy of Uruguay. In 1933, however, a shortage of wheat threatened due to the depredations caused in 1932 by locusts, and the importation of wheat to be ground into bread and spaghetti flour was authorized on April 17. The decree permitted importation only through the Bank of the Republic, and set the prices for the products and by-products imported so that prices would not be materially different from those of other years when the crop was plentiful. Of the 1,100,000 peso balance realized from these operations, 1,000,000 was earmarked for the payment of old age pensions, the rest being used to cover the difference between the cost of seed potatoes and wheat and the price at which they were sold.

Later in the same year the Ministry was requested to authorize the temporary importation of forage crops and as a result the Bank of the Republic was permitted to import free of duty oats, barley, alfalfa, and mixed feed.

A measure of great importance to wheat farmers was the law and its regulations establishing the minimum price of wheat in Montevideo and in the interior. Its provisions were such that the grower was the principal beneficiary, and again the Bank of the Republic was authorized to administer it.

In view of the fact that the Republic was having to import agricultural products to supply its own needs, a decree-law was passed on May 16, 1935, on the compulsory cultivation of the soil. The country was divided into four zones and the proportion of every farm which must be sown stipulated for each zone. All improved lands in the Department of Montevideo were included in the decree; if the owners or lessees would not cultivate them, the State was to lease them for that purpose. The planting of a certain number of trees per acre was also stipulated; trees could be procured from the National Nursery at Toledo at a 25 percent discount, grafts at a 50 percent discount, and seeds of forest trees gratis. The planting of poplars was especially recommended. The Bank of the Republic was empowered to offer special credits to speed the enforcement of the law.

This measure was adopted partly because of the wide use of agricultural products in feeding stock, partly to increase the variety and volume of exportable crops. In the latter connection particular mention was made of linseed, the growing of which had been especially encouraged; as a result the crop for 1930-31 amounted to 128,000 tons, the largest on record, and from its export more than \$3,000,000 was credited to the exchange market.

Uruguay is preeminently a stock-raising country; meats, wool, hides and skins, and their by-products constitute about 85 percent

of its exports. Therefore the Government, through the Ministry of Industries, made every effort to mitigate the effects of the depression on cattle raising. The Bank of the Republic, for instance, was called upon to restore confidence and stop the panic that low market prices were producing. The bank issued a reassuring statement which improved the tone of internal markets, and also renewed the working agreement between it and the other credit institutions in the country.

The work of the National Cold Storage Plant during the two years under discussion was most fruitful. The plant had been entirely reorganized and its expenses of operation greatly reduced. By a decree of February 1, 1934, the plant and dealers who previously had slaughtered on their own account agreed not to buy live animals. In this way the National Cold Storage Plant will become the sole buyer of cattle for slaughter in Tablada, and with a greater volume of business will be able to offer better prices.

The plant has seconded the efforts of the administration to lower the cost of living. In order to bring within the reach of the poorer classes such an article of prime necessity as meat, the plant has sold at a loss meat of excellent quality to philanthropic societies and municipal markets.

Wool, one of the commodities whose price has suffered least during the last few years, is an important item in Uruguayan export trade. Therefore the Ministry has been eager to improve the quality and quantity produced, and to that end it organized in 1934 the National Wool-Producers' Competition, in which farms having the official clean bill of health for mangle issued by the agricultural sanitary authorities and owning more than 300 breeding sheep were invited to compete for certificates, medals, cash prizes. The Ministry has proposed other measures to maintain standards: it has prohibited slaughter and sale of inferior animals; it has facilitated the importation of sires, the Government contributing part of the cost of freight, insurance, etc.; it has acquired annually 5,000 sheep of good quality to be sold to small breeders at low prices and long terms; it has arranged freight rebates and increased credit at the Bank of the Republic for establishments free from mangle, and it has abated customs duties on material needed on sheep ranches.

The agricultural services may be classed under three heads: research institutes; agricultural bureaus; and extension services. All agricultural instruction will be given by Government educational institutions specializing in that subject. The research institutes will devote their energies, as their names imply, to scientific research; the agricultural bureaus will be the connecting link between theory and practice; and the extension services are self-explanatory.

Among the measures taken by the Ministry to benefit agriculture are the creation of the Honorary Grain Board, to study and give advice on all matters related to commerce in grains and oleaginous seeds; subsoil studies carried on by the Institute of Geology and relating to petroleum, coal, calcium deposits, and drilling for water; rural settlements; and the provision of selected seed, formerly purchased abroad, but now grown in the 17 special stations which have provided over 7,500,000 pounds, exclusive of the selected seed from the National Nursery, *La Estanzuela*. The locust control organization and official measures in favor of vineyard owners are other important activities of the Ministry on behalf of the agricultural interests of the country.

Aid to manufacturing consisted largely in customs rebates for imported machinery, raw materials, etc. The opening of the Great National Industries Exhibition, organized under the auspices of the Bank of the Republic and the Ministry of Industries, on August 26, 1933, gave opportunity to appreciate the high degree of progress attained by the manufacturing interests of the Republic. The new and badly-needed fruit market in Montevideo was opened at the time of the exposition.

Patents and trademarks are under the jurisdiction of the Ministry. The decree of May 16, 1933, eliminating some of the red tape, has been instrumental in speeding up the work of the office. Another important decree, issued September 19, 1933, obliges the registrant of a trademark to offer proof that he is in business and thus prevents abuses.

The Institute of Industrial Chemistry, which also has been reorganized throughout and now is self-supporting, gave special attention to the manufacture of fertilizers. The revenue from the sale of its products in 1934 was 597,414.44 pesos.

Through the Ancap (National Administration of Combustibles, Alcohol, and Portland Cement) an annual saving to the public treasury of not less than 300,000 pesos has been made, and intensive methods of production promoted. It was estimated that 1,600 tractors were being used and a total of more than 3,000 machines and motors in rural districts were using tax-free fuels, which represents throughout the country, according to careful statistics, a sown area of 500,000 acres.

At the close of 1934, deposits in the Postal Savings Fund totaled 17,659,836.92 pesos and there were 55,409 active accounts. It has been so managed during the last two years that from a deficit of 194,130.59 pesos in March 1933, the reserve fund rose to a favorable balance of 81,956.72 pesos.

The post office and telegraph services are a subdivision of the Ministry of Industries, and in spite of the economies which had to

be practiced during the two years under discussion, the services have been improved. While there is regular airmail service to other countries, domestic service had not yet been organized at the time of the report. Cooperation with the Army Aviation Corps has been sought, and trial flights were made early in 1935.

When the duties assigned to the Cost of Living Board were transferred to the Ministry, a Cost of Living Commission was established to advise it on measures to aid the middle working classes. The result of the commission's labors was a series of decrees preventing the exploitation of consumers by merchants or speculation in articles of prime necessity.

To the Ministry of Industries was also entrusted the task of reorganizing the former Labor Bureau, which was done at a great saving to the national budget. The Superior Labor Council was established on April 7, 1933, to help enforce existing laws and decrees regulating labor, retirement, pensions, and social insurance; make suggestions for improving social legislation; and promote better understanding between employers and employees. The director of the National Labor Bureau is chairman of the council, and the members are chosen from delegates and representatives of Government organizations and private institutions and associations.

The Minister of Industries ended his report by mentioning the honorary advisory commissions, which he said had been extremely helpful during 1933 and 1934. They included, besides those already mentioned, the Commission for the Protection of South American Fauna, which drafted a Game Bill at that time before Congress; a special commission to fix the quotas for each mill exporting duty-exempt flour to Brazil, in accordance with the existing treaty; the commission to study *brucellosis*; a commission for standardizing veterinary specifics; the National Dairy Commission; the Commission on the Export of Farm Products; and the Commission for the Improvement of the Sheep Industry.—B. N.

NEW PUBLICATION OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

The Division of Intellectual Cooperation of the Pan American Union has begun the publication of a monthly mimeographed record of inter-American cultural events, which is distributed free of charge to interested persons. *Correo*, as the Spanish edition is entitled, first appeared on August 15; *Panorama*, the English edition, in October. The following items are reprinted from *Panorama*:

SUMMER SCHOOLS IN LATIN AMERICA.—While the summer school of the University of Mexico was holding its fifteenth annual session in Mexico City, the summer school organized by the Panamanian Center

for the Study of Education and Spanish American Affairs opened for the first time in Panama City (July 8 to August 17). An institution of special interest for North, Central and South American students, it offers courses and seminars in the fields of education, art and folklore, languages and literature, and political and social science. The Mexican Six-Year Plan, the "good neighbor" policy, economic, racial and political problems of Latin America, the Pan American highway, the Chaco and Leticia conflicts, painting, poetry, and the novel, are only a few of the subjects taken up in the various one-week seminars led by distinguished Panamanian scholars and visiting professors. Among the latter were Dr. J. A. Encinas, former rector of the University of San Marcos; Dr. Ramón Grau San Martín, former President of Cuba; Dr. Paul Van Orden Shaw, of Hunter College; Gastón Nerval, Bolivian author of the *Autopsy of the Monroe Doctrine*; Tancredo Pinochet, Chilean journalist; Dr. José Gabriel Navarro of Ecuador, an authority on Spanish colonial art; and the historian Raúl Carrancá and the painter Fernando Leal, both from Mexico.

An exhibition of Spanish American art was held in connection with the summer school, Mexico, Peru, Ecuador, Colombia and the Central American republics being represented by leading painters. Eight hundred students attended, 47 of them from the United States.

REOPENING OF THE UNIVERSITY OF SAN MARCOS.—The University of San Marcos (Lima, Peru) has reopened after three years of inactivity. According to the new statutes recently approved by President Benavides, San Marcos is granted academic, administrative and financial autonomy. The statutes provide for the reorganization of the other national universities of Peru, at Cuzco, Arequipa and Trujillo. It applies also to the Catholic University at Lima, a private institution.

San Marcos has been authorized to establish a graduate school and such institutes as may be in keeping with its character, in order to supplement the facilities offered by its present Schools of Law and Political Science; Medicine and Allied Sciences; Biological, Physical and Mathematical Sciences; Letters; and Economics. The university has a fine library, a Museum of Archaeology, a Department of Physical Education, and an Academy of Languages.

THE NEW UNIVERSITY OF PANAMA.—September 30 was the date¹ set for the inauguration of the National University of Panama, which was established by executive decree of May 29, 1935. The new university will consist for the present of a Central College of Arts and Sciences, in which various courses will be given leading to

¹ Postponed to October 7.—EDITOR.

degrees in arts and letters, law, commerce, and pharmacy. Facilities for pre-medical and pre-engineering studies are also afforded. Of special interest is a 2-year post-graduate course in primary education, whose graduates will be given preferential consideration in the selection of candidates for the positions of principal, assistant principal and supervisor in Government schools. The University Council, whose chairman is the Secretary of Public Education, will have authority to propose and introduce changes, and is empowered to recommend candidates for the teaching personnel. An admission fee of five balboas per semester will be charged, the proceeds to be used exclusively for the upkeep of the library and laboratories.

The Peruvian University of San Marcos, chartered in 1551, and therefore the oldest in South America, was invited to act as "god-mother" to the new university. Dr. Víctor M. Maúrtua, the noted Peruvian international lawyer, conveyed the greetings of his alma mater and presented the medals struck for the occasion by San Marcos.

Dr. Octavio Méndez Pereira, rector (president) of the National Institute, which will form a nucleus for the new institution, has been appointed rector of the university.

SCHOLARSHIPS HERE AND THERE.—The Central University of Quito, Ecuador, has offered two scholarships of 150 sucres per month each to students from the Republic of Panama. Two similar scholarships are provided for Colombian and Chilean students. The University of Chile has reciprocated in like manner. This university offers, in addition, scholarships to students from Costa Rica and Panama. Olivet College (Olivet, Michigan) has offered a scholarship for an Ecuadorean student, in recognition of the services rendered that institution by Pedro Paz, Ecuadorean instructor in music.

In connection with university interchange we must mention the two tuition scholarships which the University of La Plata, Argentina, offers to each Latin American country.

LITERARY PRIZES.—This year's recipients of the 5,000 pesos awarded annually by the municipal government of Santiago, Chile, for the best Chilean literary works, are the poet Pedro Prado, for his *Camino de las Horas*, the novelist Luis Durand, author of *Mercedes Urizar*, and Manuel Arellano Marín, for his play *Un Hombre en el Camino*. Prado has long been recognized as one of the finest poets in Latin America, and has remained true to the cause of pure art even in these restless times. Durand has been acclaimed as the man closest to writing "the great Chilean novel". Arellano Marín is a very young playwright whose technique shows the influence of the Italian Pirandello.

The city of Buenos Aires also rewards her writers. The 1934 first prizes, just announced, went to Amado Villar for his book of verse *Marimorena*, and Enrique Corbellini for *Cantico y Forma* (prose). Second and third prizes were also awarded. *Marimorena* contains 33 poems written in a simple and unaffected style, some of which deal at length with the seasons of the year.

Monetary rewards have been planned by the National Committee on Culture of Argentina for bibliographical and folklore investigations. This committee was created by law to foster the higher expressions of science, art, literature, and the theatre.

RECENT AGRICULTURAL ACTIVITIES

Honduras.—The Government of Honduras has issued regulations¹ for the leasing of national lands in the so-called reserved zones. These include a strip of approximately 25 miles inland from the international boundary lines and from the sea coast; the collective agricultural holdings of towns and villages (*ejidos*); keys, reefs, sand bars and islands; lands on which ruins of ancient cities are located; lands which may have been surveyed and deeded to indigenous tribes now extinct; and those which belonged to villages and municipalities no longer existent.² The measure is intended to aid agriculture and the live stock industry, and to encourage the establishment of small farms.

Any native born or naturalized citizen of Honduras in full exercise of his legal rights may apply for a tract measuring up to 1,235 acres, if the land is to be devoted to agriculture; and up to 1,482 acres if it is for live stock raising. The applicant must show, however, that he is financially able to develop the property, except where the grant is for less than 247 acres. Foreigners who owned lands in the reserved zones prior to enactment of the Agrarian Law "shall be considered Honduran citizens for all purposes related to the possession, administration and management of their real property, and may not have, at any time, the right to invoke the protection of their respective countries". Persons related to one another, within the fourth degree of consanguinity and the second of affinity, shall not be granted lands in the same zone.

With regard to the establishment of homesteads in the reserved zones, the decree stipulates that preference shall be given to native-born citizens of Honduras, and provides that the zone set aside under Executive decree no. 854, of July 15, 1931, which includes the national lands situated in the departments of Valle and Choluteca, together with the keys and islands in the Gulf of Fonseca, shall be given only to native Hondurans.

¹ Decree No. 866, *La Gaceta*, Honduras, July 9, 1935.

² Article 51 of the Agrarian Law of Honduras.

Chile.—Although the fruit-growing industry was not started in Chile until some 30 years ago, it has become a very important factor in the economic recovery of the country. Excluding the vineyards, which constitute the basis of the large wine production of Chile, the total area planted with fruit trees is about 125,000 acres, 32 percent of which are given to the growing of apples; 20 percent to peaches; 9 percent to plums; 7 percent to pears; 4 percent to nuts, and the remainder to the production of many different kinds of fruit, among them cherries, oranges, quinces, lemons, olives, figs, almonds, chestnuts, etc. The markets of the countries to the North have been increasing their purchases of Chilean fruit, and with the aid of the large and modern refrigerating plants being built by the government in the principal ports, and the special facilities given to the growers, Chile is doing at present a thriving export business. The latest figures available on the principal varieties of Chilean fruit exported are as follows:

	1932	1933	1934
	<i>Pounds</i>	<i>Pounds</i>	<i>Pounds</i>
Apples.....	9, 760, 703	11, 036, 181	18, 392, 000
Pears.....	23, 073	295, 517	299, 561
Peaches.....	428, 254	593, 982	1, 294, 887
Grapes for table use.....	199, 108	7, 290, 000	8, 200, 000

In the efforts to put Chile in the front rank of the fruit-exporting countries of the world, much credit should be given to the activities of the Government, which in 1930 created the Agricultural Export Board to encourage production, improve methods of transportation and distribution, and to seek foreign markets for the exportable surplus of Chilean agricultural products. On the other hand, the growers have organized themselves into mutual and cooperative societies or guilds, thus helping stabilize prices, improve selection and quality of fruit, and, in general, organize more intelligently the fruit industry.

Panama.—President Harmodio Arias has issued a decree¹ creating a National Agrarian Board, to take charge of all matters pertaining to agricultural development in the Republic. The Secretary of the Treasury was appointed chairman, the other members being the Secretary of Government and Justice and the chief of the Bureau of Agriculture in the Department of Agriculture and Public Works. The Chief of the Real Estate Tax Bureau of the Treasury Department is to act as secretary. The decree assigns to the Board, among others, the following duties: to study the agrarian problem of the small farmer; to recommend to the Executive the acquisition of the

¹ Decree No. 100, 1935. *Gaceta Oficial* of Panama, August 30, 1935.

agricultural lands for distribution among indigent farmers, for the establishment of farming colonies, or for town or village sites; to study living conditions among the farmers in the rural districts of Panama, and their methods of production and distribution, with a view to improving their standard of living and their economic status; to adopt or recommend such methods of propaganda as may be needed in order to obtain the cooperation of the farmers; and, in general, to supervise the strict enforcement of this decree and of related laws, insofar as they refer to the agrarian question, for the benefit of the small farmer and the progress of agriculture in the country; as well as to supervise the strict fulfilment of all contracts signed, or which may be entered into hereafter, by the Government for land leases or grants.

Peru.—The Superior Board of Agriculture is the name given to a national commission created under an Executive Decree issued by President Oscar P. Benavides of Peru, and empowered to study all the technical problems arising in connection with the production and marketing of agricultural commodities, and to exercise supervision over the activities of local agricultural associations. One of its first tasks was to classify and subdivide arable and grazing lands into zones of agricultural production. The Board is composed of 14 members, of whom 4 are officials appointed by the Department of Agriculture and the remainder persons engaged in agriculture in a private capacity.

Dominican Republic.—The Secretary of Labor and Agriculture of the Dominican Republic, Hon. Andrés Pastoriza, reports that expanding markets and increasing exports have given added incentive to the cultivation of bananas in several sections of the country, particularly in the Province of Puerto Plata, where nearly 150,000 slips have been distributed among the farmers. A bumper crop is predicted for the next harvest.—F. J. H.

EXHIBITION OF AMERICAN AGRICULTURAL PUBLICATIONS

From November 15-30, 1935, an exhibition of American agricultural publications will be held in Santiago, Chile. The exhibition is being organized by the Institute of Agricultural Engineers, under the patronage of President Alessandri and the Ministers of Agriculture, Public Education, Foreign Affairs, and Lands and Colonization. It is hoped that publications from all the American countries will be received for display. The Pan American Union will be represented by copies of the Spanish edition of the BULLETIN and a complete set of its publications in Spanish dealing with agriculture.

SUPERIOR COUNCIL ON INDIGENOUS AFFAIRS IN PERU

By a decree of July 8, 1935, the Superior Council on Indigenous Affairs was created as a consultative body of the Peruvian Ministry of Promotion. The *ex officio* members of the council will be the Minister of Promotion, chairman; one of the prosecuting attorneys before the Supreme Court; the Director General of Promotion; the Director of Agriculture and Stockraising; the legal adviser to the Ministry of Promotion; and the chief of the Bureau of Indian Affairs. The three other members, to be appointed by the Government, will represent the Ministry of Justice and Instruction, the Bar Association of Lima, and the Society of Engineers of Peru, respectively; these will hold office for two years, and be eligible for reappointment. The council will study and propose to the Government the best way to include in its deliberations "three genuine representatives of indigenous interests."

Among its duties are the drafting of bills on matters relating to Indians; the compilation of all laws and regulations now in force relating to Indians; and the recommendation of educational, economic, and social measures intended to improve the native races.

COMPULSORY LABOR ACCIDENT INSURANCE FUND ESTABLISHED IN BOLIVIA

President José Luis Tejada Sorzano of Bolivia signed on May 22, 1935, a decree creating the Insurance and Savings Fund for Workers (Caja de Seguro y Ahorro Obrera), with headquarters in La Paz. The decree provides for the immediate establishment of a division for the compensation of employees of mining companies for labor accidents and occupational diseases, and for the administration of their savings accounts. Gradually the Fund will open similar divisions for employees in other industries.

All miners will be eligible for compensation from the Fund who hold an employment contract signed by the employer (*patrono*) and registered in the Fund offices. Compensation for non-registered workers will be wholly the responsibility of the companies.

Within 30 days after the board of directors of the Fund has been organized, the mining companies are to pay the sum of 20 bolivianos for each laborer as of April 30, 1935. This special tax will be used as part of the initial capital of the Fund. The Government's only contribution to the Fund will be the payment of 100,000 bolivianos in a lump sum. The companies are to contribute 3 percent of their net payroll, and the workers 5 percent of their salaries. Of that 5 percent, however, only 1 will be put into the Fund; the remaining 4

will be deposited to the worker's account, as provided by the Compulsory Savings Law of January 25, 1924. The savings accounts already established by that law will be transferred to the Fund. The money realized from the liquidation of the guarantee funds established in accordance with provisions of the Labor Accidents Law of January 19, 1924, will also be added to the Fund.

For the present the Fund will be managed by a board of directors composed of a representative of the Government, appointed by the President and *ex officio* its chairman; two representatives of the large mining companies; one member to represent the small mining companies and one to represent the miners. All members will be appointed for two years, and may succeed themselves indefinitely.

THE POPULATION OF HONDURAS

According to figures released on July 30, 1935 by the Director General of Statistics, Señor Alfredo León Gómez, the population of Honduras as of November 30, 1934 was as follows:

Department	Population in 1930	Population in 1935	Increase	Percent
Tegucigalpa.....	113, 483	130, 974	17, 491	15. 41
El Paraiso.....	56, 300	59, 292	2, 992	5. 31
Choluteca.....	69, 096	75, 867	6, 771	9. 80
Valle.....	40, 254	44, 102	3, 848	9. 55
Olancho.....	53, 412	56, 517	3, 105	5. 81
Comayagua.....	42, 987	47, 880	4, 893	11. 38
La Paz.....	39, 140	43, 559	4, 419	11. 29
Yoro.....	42, 555	50, 027	7, 472	17. 56
Santa Bárbara.....	61, 260	68, 598	7, 338	11. 98
Intibucá.....	39, 002	44, 283	5, 281	13. 54
Gracias.....	64, 947	72, 698	7, 751	11. 93
Copán.....	66, 208	73, 502	7, 294	11. 01
Ocatepeque.....	37, 494	40, 326	2, 832	7. 55
Cortés.....	58, 273	74, 479	16, 206	27. 81
Atlántida.....	32, 506	38, 007	5, 501	16. 92
Colón.....	31, 787	36, 065	4, 278	13. 46
Islas de la Bahía.....	5, 480	6, 509	1, 029	18. 78
Total.....	854, 184	962, 685	108, 501	12. 70

ELECTRIC POWER IN CHILE

Chile is rich in water power for the generation of electricity, although that resource is unevenly distributed; in northern Chile, where the mining industries are constantly increasing the amount of electricity used, steam and Diesel motor generators are employed.

There are 178 public service power stations in operation, supplying more than 240 cities and towns. Of these, 31 are run by gas, 28 by coal or wood, 70 by water power, and 49 by oil. In 1932 these generated 285,000,000 kwh, in 1933, 313,000,000 kwh, and in 1934, 356,000,000 kwh.

While the greater number of stations are owned by individual operators, the largest and most important economically are run by corporations. The total amount of capital invested in public service electrical enterprises has been estimated at 1,500,000,000 gold pesos.

Private industry has established important power stations for the use of individual companies, principally those engaged in the extraction of copper, nitrate, and coal. In 1932, the latest year for which figures are available, the nitrate industry consumed 124,500,000 kwh, copper 277,200,000 kwh, and coal 18,900,000 kwh.

PARAGUAYAN COTTON PRODUCTION

The Agricultural Bank of Paraguay has been very active in promoting the growing of high-grade cotton in the Republic. During 1932 and 1933 it imported from the United States 75,000 pounds of selected seed to replace and improve the varieties previously grown in the country. Moreover, it loaned money and provided 33,000 pounds of seed to agricultural colonies which had been growing other crops, and sent agricultural experts to instruct the farmers in methods and practices. The resulting crop amounted to 800 tons of raw cotton, which enabled the farmers to cancel nearly all their outstanding debts, provide for their immediate necessities, and put aside a reserve fund; the bank "gained good clients and over 1,000,000 pounds of cotton seed, of superior quality, which was sown in different regions of the country."

Nearly all the cotton produced is exported, because of lack of manufacturing facilities in Paraguay. During the 9-year period 1925-33, the production varied between 4,000,000 and 8,000,000 pounds, but in 1934 it increased to more than 17,500,000 pounds. Moreover, because of the better quality of the seed used, there was a noticeable improvement in quality.

The by-products for 1934 included 40,000,000 pounds of seed, of which 2,500,000 were kept for the next year's sowing, and 16,000,000 exported. Over 800 tons of cottonseed oil, 3,230 tons of cottonseed cakes, and 97 tons of linters were exported.

SEVENTH NATIONAL CONGRESS OF EDUCATION IN BRAZIL

On July 9, 1935, the Seventh National Congress of Education closed its meetings in Rio de Janeiro. A special committee, under the chairmanship of the Minister of Education, had been appointed to suggest the bases for the organization and functioning of the State bureaus and councils of education provided for by the Constitution. (Article 152, single paragraph, of the Constitution of Brazil, reads as

follows: "The States and the Federal District, by laws on the subject and for the exercise of their authority in the matter, shall establish Councils of Education with functions similar to those of the National Council of Education and autonomous bureaus for the administration of teaching.") The Committee presented at the close of the congress a plan containing the following provisions: Each State should, as far as possible, organize its educational system in harmony with the national system; the State system, to be administered by an autonomous bureau, should include all technical and administrative matters; the bureau should be in charge of a director—a trained educator who shall act as administrator—and of a council, a consultative or deliberative body whose duties will be fixed by State law, and which shall be composed of educators and students of social problems; members of the council shall hold office for four years, half the membership being renewed every two years; in addition to its consultative functions, the council shall draft a plan for the State system of education, suggest any changes in it when they may be necessary, and draw up regulations for the examination and approval of textbooks and equipment suggested by the director.

TOBACCO CULTIVATION IN ARGENTINA

The Argentine Bureau of Internal Revenue has recently published the results of the 1935 tobacco census. As will be seen from the following table, the growth of the industry during the last year has been remarkable:

	1935	1934
Growers.....number..	12, 506	6, 975
Area sown.....acres..	50, 980	19, 850
Plants cultivated.....number..	220, 695, 322	95, 048, 283
Seed used.....pounds..	42, 981	2, 125
Tobacco produced.....pounds..	51, 490, 016	18, 903, 360

Tobacco is grown in 11 Provinces and Territories. The Province of Corrientes is the foremost producer, its output for 1935 being 29,491,418 pounds. The Territory of Misiones is second in rank, with 14,358,826 pounds, while the Province of Salta is third, with 6,223,428 pounds.

FIRST WOMEN'S CIVIC CONVENTION IN CHILE

The feminist movement in Chile, which received a recent impetus with the granting of the municipal vote to women ¹ and the modification of the civil code so as to make the status of women more nearly

¹ See BULLETIN of the Pan American Union. Nov. 1934: June and July, 1935.

equal to that of men before the law,² gave evidence of its strength last June when for the first time in the history of the country a women's convention on civic affairs met in Santiago. Held by the *Acción Nacional de Mujeres de Chile*, an organization formed last year to coordinate women's activities according to the principles of the Catholic Church, the convention was attended by delegates from all the Provinces and received wide publicity in the national press. Its sessions were devoted to the study of points in the comprehensive program of the association which seeks not only equality for men and women in civil and political matters but reforms in the fields of education, economics and social welfare. The president of the association, Señora Adela Edwards de Salas, who last April was elected to the municipal council of Santiago, acted as chairman of the convention.

BRIEF NOTES

CHANGES IN THE COSTA RICAN CONSTITUTION.—Paragraph 3 of article 6 of the Costa Rican constitution was amended by Congress and approved by President Jiménez on July 20, 1935. Citizens of other nations are now required to reside in the country for 5 years, instead of 1 year, before obtaining naturalization papers.

Articles 120 and 127, dealing with the Supreme Court, were amended by Congress and approved by the President on August 20, 1935. The organization of the Supreme Court is to be fixed by law, such law or laws requiring the approval of two-thirds of the members of Congress (article 120). Temporary vacancies on the bench will be filled from among alternates, who will be selected by lot; appointments to fill permanent vacancies will be made by Congress (article 127).

NATIONAL ARCHIVES ORGANIZED IN THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC.—The organization of the National General Archives of the Dominican Republic as a central depository for all historical and official documents was decreed by law no. 912, of May 22, 1935. All government offices and dependencies must send to the General Archives all papers relative to matters which have been closed 5 years or more. Documents and other papers of purely historic interest will be available for historical research, provided that they are more than 25 years old.

Later regulations provide that the General Archives are to be divided into 10 main sections, based on the principal periods in Dominican history, and stipulate that all the papers coming within the scope of the decree are to be delivered during the last two weeks of December 1935.

² *Id.* May 1935.

NEW UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS IN LIMA AND MONTEVIDEO.—The appointments of Sr. Alfredo Solf Muso as president of the University of San Marcos, Lima, and of Dr. Carlos Vaz Ferreira as president of the Universidad of Montevideo, have recently been announced.

FOREIGN VESSELS FORBIDDEN TO VISIT THE GALAPAGOS ISLANDS.—According to a decree signed by President Velasco Ibarra on May 18, 1935, all foreign merchant vessels are forbidden to enter the waters of the Galapagos Archipelago. Foreign vessels wishing to fish in those waters may do so provided that they have first complied with the regulations established in regard to that industry, which include the payment of a tax of five dollars a ton on their cold storage capacity.

NEW ISSUE OF COSTA RICAN COINS.—The Government of Costa Rica authorized by a decree of August 22, 1935, the coinage of 1,000,000 colones' worth of specie in the United States Mint at Philadelphia. The coins, which are to contain 25 percent nickel and 75 percent copper, are to be of the following amounts and denominations: one colón, 350,000; 50 céntimos, 700,000; and 25 céntimos, 1,200,000. The new money is to be put into circulation through the International Bank of Costa Rica in accordance with instructions from the Department of the Treasury and Commerce.

MODERN HOTELS IN BAHIA.—According to a report by Mr. Aldene A. Barrington, Assistant U. S. Trade Commissioner in Rio de Janeiro, the Government of the State of Bahia has issued a decree granting to prospective hotel builders state tax exemptions of different kinds for from five to ten years. In order to be eligible for such concessions, the builders of the new hotels must present plans which comply with the technical requirements of the State Construction Regulations.

MATERNAL AND CHILD WELFARE COMMISSION IN CHILE.—A decree signed by President Alessandri on August 17, 1935, created a commission to study the problems of the life and welfare of mother and child during as long a period as it considers State attention advisable. Specific matters included in the scope of the commission are the coordination of existing services, whether official, semiofficial, or private, and of general attendance on mother and child; medical, sociological, educational, and legal problems affecting them; and the cost which such activities may be expected to entail and the means of financing them. The commission, whose chairman will be the Minister of Public Health, will be composed of the governor of the Province of Santiago, the mayor of the city of Santiago, the director general of Welfare and Social Work, the director general of Public Health;

the administrator of the Compulsory Insurance Fund; and government officials and private individuals representing welfare organizations and hospitals.

INDUSTRIAL CENSUS COMMITTEE OF ARGENTINA.—Law no. 12104 of October 8, 1934, provided for the taking of an industrial census within a year from its promulgation. On May 18, 1935, President Justo appointed the National Industrial Census Committee, under the chairmanship of Señor Carlos Brebbia, Assistant Secretary of Agriculture, which was to decide the dates and manner of taking the census. At the first meeting of the committee it was stated that while the original decree limited the census to the extractive (mining, quarrying, forestal, hunting, and fishing) and manufacturing industries, it was hoped that under the latter term it would be possible to include building and construction work, the printing of newspapers and magazines, and similar industries. The last industrial census in Argentina was taken in 1914.

At a meeting held on September 7, the Commission decided that the census should be taken simultaneously throughout the country on October 31, 1935.

CATTLE CENSUS OF 1935 IN CHILE.—A recent census of the cattle in Chile shows an increase of 74,790 head, or 3 percent, during the 5-year period 1930–35. The growth of this industry in the Republic since 1910 may be seen from the following table:

Year	Calves	Cows and heifers	Oxen and steers	Bulls	Total
1910.....	322, 975	693, 026	581, 574	37, 565	1, 635, 140
1915.....	344, 414	810, 465	741, 950	47, 125	1, 943, 954
1920.....	560, 304	887, 039	804, 251	52, 547	2, 163, 141
1925.....	379, 763	757, 487	734, 457	46, 726	1, 918, 433
1930.....	419, 656	997, 016	911, 906	59, 362	2, 387, 940
1935.....	431, 951	1, 017, 131	950, 568	63, 080	2, 462, 730

NEW HIGHWAYS OPENED IN THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC.—Two new highways were recently opened to traffic in the Dominican Republic. On July 7 the 25-mile road between Hato Mayor, in the Province of El Saybo, and Sabana de la Mar, in that of Samaná, was formerly opened. Seven weeks later, on August 25, Jánico and Santiago, both in the Province of Santiago, were united by a highway which, although only 16 miles long, required great engineering skill because of the difficult terrain through which it passes.

UNIVERSITY REORGANIZATION COMMITTEE OF CUBA.—By decree-law no. 118, signed by President Mendieta on August 7, 1935, a commission of 12 members and 6 alternates, to be appointed by the President,

was created to draft a new statute for the University of Habana. The decree provides for the complete autonomy of the university, and states that the chairman of the committee will be the legal representative of the university and enjoy all the rights and privileges accorded to its president.

NEW PRESIDENT OF CHILEAN SOCIETY OF GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.—Señor Domingo Amunátegui Solar was elected president of the Chilean Society of Geography and History to succeed Señor Augustín Edwards, who had resigned because of his appointment as ambassador to the Court of St. James's. Señor Amunátegui, who has an international reputation as an historian, has also been director of the Pedagogic Institute, president of the University of Chile, and cabinet member on several occasions.

FAMILY EDUCATION.—On May 23 Dr. Maximiliano Salas Marchán, a former Director of Primary Education in Chile, gave the introductory lecture in a course on family education at the University of Chile. Dr. Salas Marchán, who has studied this type of education in Europe and the United States, summarized the material given students of this subject in the countries he had visited, including character education, child care, child psychology, and education for parenthood. The course was to consist of weekly lectures by leading specialists in the fields under discussion.

CUSTOMS AIRDROMES IN BRAZIL.—The Government of Brazil issued a decree on July 4, 1934, requiring aircraft arriving from or proceeding abroad to land at one of 14 specified customs airports on both arrival and departure. The 10 ports in operation on July 29, 1935, according to a communication to the International Commission for Air Navigation were: Villa Nova de Tocantins (Amazonas), Foz do Iguassú (Paraná), Uruguayana (Rio Grande do Sul), and Sant'Anna do Livramento (Rio Grande do Sul); for both sea and land planes, Montenegro (Pará), Corumbá (Matto Grosso), and Rio Grande (Rio Grande do Sul); for both sea and land planes, with arrangements for night landing, Pelotas (Rio Grande do Sul), Recife (Pernambuco), and Natal (Rio Grande do Norte).

CUSTOMS AIRDROMES IN THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC.—According to information submitted on June 12, 1935, to the International Commission for Air Navigation by the Government of the Dominican Republic, customs airdromes for seaplanes are situated at Santo Domingo, Azua, Barahona, San Pedro de Macorís, La Romana, Samaná, Sánchez, Puerto Plata, and Monte Cristi, while those for land planes are at Villa Elías Piña, Las Lajas, and Dajabón.

NECROLOGY

MANUEL ÁLVAREZ CALDERÓN.—A statesman and diplomat who had grown old in the service of his country, Señor Manuel Álvarez Calderón, died in Lima on July 23, 1935, at the age of 83. Señor Álvarez Calderón, one of the most distinguished figures of his time, had been minister to the United States, Peruvian delegate to the Second International Conference of American States which met in Mexico in 1902, minister to Mexico, first Peruvian minister to Cuba, minister to Chile, minister to Belgium and Switzerland, and a member of the Permanent Court of International Justice at the Hague. Señor Álvarez Calderón had also taken an active interest in education and music in Peru.

RAFAEL NEIRA A.—One of the founders of the Republic of Panama, Dr. Rafael Neira A., died in Panama on July 18, 1935, at the age of 80. In the decree declaring 8 days of official mourning, President Arias enumerated Dr. Neira's services to the country as a member of the National Constituent Convention, Deputy to the National Assembly, Assistant Secretary of Public Works, Assistant Secretary of Foreign Affairs, governor of the Province of Colón, Administrator General of the Liquor Revenue, Commander in Chief of the National Police Force, and Secretary of Government and Justice.

ARÍSTIDES ARJONA.—A second period of mourning was decreed by President Arias of Panama in tribute to another citizen prominent in the life of the Republic since its establishment, Dr. Arístides Arjona. Dr. Arjona, who died on August 7, 1935, had been a member of the Constituent Assembly, held several Cabinet portfolios, including Government and Justice, the Treasury, and Foreign Affairs, and had been a member of the Supreme Court; at the time of his death he was Attorney General of the Republic. One of his greatest services to his country was his organization of the present monetary system under President Amador Guerrero, soon after the nation had been established as an independent Republic.

F. D. LÉGITIME.—General F. D. Légitime, President of the Republic of Haiti from October 1888 to August 1889, died at his home in Turgeau on July 29, 1935, and was buried with military honors.

ANGÉLICA PALMA.—The sudden death on September 6, 1935, at the age of 52, of the noted Peruvian writer and feminist, Angélica Palma, shocked and saddened her friends throughout the Americas and in Europe. The daughter of Ricardo Palma, whose *Tradiciones Peruanas* spread his reputation far beyond the confines of his native land, Señorita Palma had inherited literary talent of a high order. Among her works are *Vencida*, *Por Senda Propia*, *Coloniaje Romántico* (awarded a prize by the International Literary Congress of Buenos Aires, 1921), *Tiempos de la Patria Vieja* (winner of the first prize in the Ayacucho Contest, Lima, 1924), *Al Azar*, *Biografías Noveladas*, and *Ricardo Palma*. Readers of the BULLETIN will recall with pleasure her delightful article on Lima in the January 1935 issue, on the occasion of the four hundredth anniversary of the city.

Señorita Palma was a Peruvian delegate to the Inter-American Congress of Women and the Bolivarian Congress, both meeting in Panama in 1926, and to the Seville Exposition in 1929. She was a member of several Spanish Academies and had been granted the insignia of the Order of Alfonso XII. As a lecturer she was popular in Peru, Spain, Panama, Uruguay, and Argentina. Señorita Palma had gone to Buenos Aires at the invitation of national educational authorities to take part in the unveiling of a bust of her father in the National Institute of Professors of Modern Languages. She died of pneumonia in Rosario, where she had expected to give a series of lectures.

FERNANDO PÉREZ.—A former Argentine diplomat who had represented his country ably in Europe for many years, Dr. Fernando Pérez, died in Paris on July 26, 1935. He was well known also as a discriminating patron of the arts; an apparatus of his invention for determining the authenticity of the great masters by means of the X-ray has been installed in the Louvre.

FEDERICO PUGA BORNE.—On August 13, 1935, Dr. Federico Puga Borne, a noted Chilean physician, scientist, educator, statesman, and diplomat, died in his 80th year. Dr. Puga Borne had been president of the Chilean Scientific Society, founder of the *Revista de Higiene* in 1887, Senator, Minister of Justice, Foreign Affairs and the Interior, and Minister to France; he was also the author of works of hygiene, legal medicine, and other scientific subjects.

PEDRO DE TOLEDO.—At the age of 75, Pedro de Toledo, one of the most eminent of Brazilian citizens, died in Rio de Janeiro on July 29, 1935. During his long and fruitful life he had held many honorable offices whose duties were discharged ably and conscientiously.

Dr. Toledo was born and educated in São Paulo. Upon graduating from the law school there, he began his public career under the Empire as legal adviser to the Provincial Treasury of São Paulo. After the Republic had been proclaimed, he continued to hold positions of responsibility in his State, where he founded and became leader of the Conservative Republican Party. Later he took part in national affairs; his services as Minister of Agriculture were particularly outstanding. He then passed to a diplomatic career, and his services as Minister in Rome and Madrid and later as first Brazilian Ambassador in Buenos Aires won him an enviable reputation for tact and ability. In 1932 he was appointed Interventor in the State of São Paulo; it devolved upon him to shoulder responsibility during the dark days that followed. After a brief period of exile, Dr. Toledo returned to Brazil where he was received with general manifestations of sympathy. He was recognized throughout his native land as a man of sterling character and as a great apostle of peace, and his death was lamented in all walks of life, the Federal Congress and the city council of Rio de Janeiro suspending their sessions in tribute to his memory.



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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and an administrative division exists for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

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ASSEMBLY OF THE PAN AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY.

Delegates and guests attending a session of the Second Assembly of the Institute at the Pan American Union, from October 14-19, 1933.



VOL. LXIX

DECEMBER 1935

No. 12

THE PAN AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF GEOGRAPHY AND HISTORY: SECOND GENERAL ASSEMBLY

AT the invitation of the Government of the United States, the Second General Assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History convened at Washington from October 14 to 19, with approximately 160 delegates in attendance representing the Governments of the American Republics, scientific institutions, colleges and universities of the nations of the Western Hemisphere.

The Pan American Institute of Geography and History was created pursuant to a resolution adopted at the Sixth International Conference of American States which met at Habana in 1928. The permanent headquarters of the Institute are in Mexico City, where the Mexican Government has provided a building for its use. The first assembly was held at Rio de Janeiro in December, 1932. The purpose of the Institute is the collection and dissemination of information on geographical and historical questions of mutual interest to the American Republics; and the orientation of its studies, said a report adopted at the second assembly, should be in accord with the original purposes of the Pan American Union, to promote peace, mutual respect, cooperation, understanding and the cultural unification of all the nations of this continent.

To prepare for and to conduct the sessions of the assembly an organizing committee was appointed by the Secretary of State of the United States, consisting of the following members: Dr. Wallace W. Atwood, president of Clark University, chairman; Colonel Claude H. Birdseye, chief, Division of Engraving and Printing, United States Geological Survey; Major William Bowie, chief, Division of Geodesy, United States Coast and Geodetic Survey; Dr. A. V.

Kidder, chairman, Division of Historical Research, Carnegie Institution of Washington; Dr. Waldo S. Leland, permanent secretary, American Council of Learned Societies; Mr. Hunter Miller, historical adviser, Department of State; Mr. Richard Southgate, chief, Division of Protocol and Conferences, Department of State. Dr. William Manger, Counselor of the Pan American Union, served as secretary general of the assembly.

The sessions of the assembly were held in the Hall of the Americas of the Pan American Union, and were presided over by Dr. Atwood who, in addition to being chairman of the organizing committee, was also chairman of the Executive Committee of the Institute. At the opening session addresses of welcome were delivered by the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State, and by the Ambassador of Peru, Dr. Manuel de Freyre y Santander, vice-chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. Secretary Hull said:

On behalf of the Government of the United States I extend to the members here gathered of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History a hearty welcome and I assure you of this Government's pleasure and gratification in acting as host to this assembly of this Institute.

It is proper and logical that the broad activities of the Conferences of American States—the last of which was held with such success at Montevideo—should be supplemented and buttressed with the more specialized activities of other American gatherings. Those of us who are engaged in the work of diplomacy—and I see many distinguished representatives of that profession here—realize that our labors in the interest of international comity must, if they are to be effective, be supported sincerely and intelligently by the millions of people for whom we have the temerity to speak. Diplomacy has been defined as the art and science of international negotiation. That is a definition which looks to the past. It seems to me that today diplomacy must seek a much wider, a much more comprehensive, field of activity. Our duties and functions now are not confined to negotiation alone; they broaden into unremitting effort to bring the peoples of the western world, with common ideals, common aspirations, common purposes and common interests, into a more intimate and cooperative relationship, to understand each other even more sympathetically and to strive with neighborly spirit for the solution of problems common to us all. The task is not easy. A thousand large or small difficulties in a thousand different places struggle to resist such efforts. But from time to time opportunities appear when definite, serious progress can be made. Such an opportunity, gentlemen, is yours during the forthcoming week.

You are assembled here to consider and discuss research in the fields of geography and history in this hemisphere. These are two topics well calculated to stir and unite the interests of our 21 nations. Our fundamental experiences in each of the countries represented have been much the same. From colonies we have become free and independent nations, established in lands unhampered by the bonds of the past. Can anything conceivably draw us closer together intellectually and culturally, than dispassionate and earnest study of our various environments and of our histories as independent states but neighboring peoples.

You all know of the origin and development of the Institute. Mexico has contributed generously to its support and has made available a handsome and convenient building to house its activities and to shelter its archives. Dr. Pedro

Sánchez has given tirelessly of his time and of his wisdom and experience. Dr. Atwood, the present president, has reported the interest of Brazil, where the last assembly was held. With the collaboration of other American nations, the Institute is firmly established and effectively dedicated to the advancement of learning.

The opportunity of which I spoke a few moments ago is, then, the opportunity to discuss topics of undeniably common interest under the happy auspices of an organization already created to encourage and to record the results of such discussions. You come as men of science, anxious to exchange your knowledge and experience, to learn from one another, to give and to take, in the friendly and helpful spirit of Pan Americanism. You will have the privilege of hearing many learned addresses from eminent scholars and you will have the opportunity to participate in discussions of the theses set forth by these gentlemen. You will be able more clearly to interpret the past, to judge the present and to help us to look to the future with a better understanding. The results of your deliberations will be disseminated over the Americas to the profit of teachers and students in all of our countries. You will be able to make a highly valuable contribution to that international collaboration which I previously indicated as being so profoundly essential to the efforts of diplomacy.

Fortunately your scientific discussions will not be disturbed by the introduction of political questions. Were I a delegate to this assembly, dealing, as it does, with purely scientific questions, I should not consider it appropriate to speak of the present international situation, but as I am addressing you solely in the capacity of one concerned with international affairs perhaps there will be no impropriety in my speaking of such matters.

It is significant that you are meeting as representatives of a group of nations at peace. Meetings like yours, with their splendid contributions to the common good, can only be held in such happy circumstances. Peace is the goal toward which civilization has been struggling and is the first and most necessary requisite for the growth and refinement of science, literature, and art; for the progressive improvement of the social, economic, and spiritual welfare of the peoples of the world.

The disturbed and menacing conditions elsewhere constitute a solemn warning to us. It is to be hoped that all nations soon will forever forsake the barbarous institution of war, and that suspicion, mistrust and selfish ambition, will be forever banished. Knowing the sincere devotion to the cause of peace of the governments and peoples of the Americas, I am confident that I speak for all when, in the name of our 21 nations, I say that we are determined to keep the peace and that we call upon the rest of the world to do likewise.

Although we in this hemisphere have gone through difficult times, nevertheless in no other part of the world have efforts toward the amicable settlement of international disputes been made with such sincerity of purpose or, on the whole, met with such general success. To the threats of misunderstanding and war let the answer of the Americas be the maintenance of a stalwart community of nations, not one of which either contemplates or fears aggression.

On the basis of such an answer and of lasting peace, the opportunity and perhaps the responsibility will be ours to preserve and secure to the world the benefits of civilization and to carry human advancement to greater heights. Unhampered as we are by hates and jealousies out of the past, the road of progress lies open before us. We are united in the common ideal of democracy for which the great heroes of all our countries have contended. We share the high principles that are vital to the material, moral and spiritual well-being of the people of these continents. We are endowed with the culture and knowledge of the older civilizations from which we came, divested of narrow and selfish motives

by transplantation and revitalized by the fresher outlook, energy and enthusiasm of a new world. A survey of our assets reveals conclusive evidence that the foundations have been laid and the material is at hand for the building in the Americas of a greater civilization than any of the past. The opportunity is ours, and our duty to meet the challenge of the world's discouragement is plain. By keeping the peace, by clinging steadfastly to our ideals, by working wholeheartedly together, we cannot fail!

In extending to the delegates a welcome on behalf of the Pan American Union, the Ambassador of Peru declared that:

With each year it is increasingly evident that for the development of that mutual understanding so necessary to international peace and good feeling commercial intercourse is not sufficient. It is only through the cultivation of close cultural ties that mutual understanding between nations can be assured.

The sessions of this assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History constitute one of the indications of the determination of the nations of this continent to foster to the fullest possible extent those cultural relations which contribute so much to better international understanding.

Following the organization of the assembly, the Director of the Institute, Dr. Pedro C. Sánchez, presented a report on the activities of the Institute during the three-year period since the meeting of the first assembly at Rio de Janeiro in 1932.

At subsequent sessions a number of papers on various phases of the history and geography of the Western Hemisphere were presented and discussed. The complete list of papers submitted to the assembly is as follows, those marked with an asterisk having been read at the meetings:

Rollin S. Atwood:	The Agricultural Mayas.*
Isaiah Bowman:	A New Chapter in Pan American Cartography.*
John G. Bradley:	Recording History in Three Dimensions.
Albert H. Bumstead:	Map Making at the National Geographic Society.
Octavio Bustamante:	Importance of Geographical Maps.*
	Importance of Uniformity in the Conventional Symbols used on Geographical Maps.*
Alfonso Caso:	Explorations at Monte Albán, 1932-35.*
Verne E. Chatelain:	A New National Program for the Preservation of Historic Sites in the United States of North America.
N. Andrew N. Cleven:	American History; Its Scope and Significance.
Major James H. Doolittle:	The Conquest of Distance.*
A. E. Douglas:	Dating Pueblo Bonito and other Ruins of the Southwest.
Enrique Finot:	Bolívar, Man of Peace.
J. A. Fleming:	The Relation of Earth Physics to Geographical Progress.*
Manuel Gamio:	Understanding and Good Government of the Population in Indo-Iberian Countries of this Continent.*
Malcolm Gardner:	History and Archaeology at Jamestown.
V. R. Garfias and Theodore Chapin:	Geology of Northeastern Mexico with a Physiographic and Geologic Outline of Mexico.

L. C. Gray:	Redistribution of Population in the United States.*
Ramiro Guerra y Sánchez:	Early Economic Crises in Cuba and their Relation to United States Trade.*
William H. Haas:	Pre-Spanish Puerto Rico.*
Roscoe R. Hill:	Sources of American History in Spanish Archives.*
Dorsey W. Hyde, Jr.:	The National Archives of the United States.
Clarence F. Jones:	Economic Transformation of South America.*
A. V. Kidder:	The Development of Maya Research.*
Sturgis E. Leavitt:	Some Phases of the Cultural Relationship between the United States and Hispanic America During the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries.
John C. Merriam:	Geography and History among the Sciences, in Research on the Americas.*
Roy F. Nichols:	William Shaler, Early American Ambassador of Good Will.
Rafael Pico:	Geographical and Economic Factors Influencing Puerto Rican Agriculture.*
Raye R. Platt:	The Millionth Map of Hispanic America.*
J. Fred Rippy:	Some Ways in Which Hispanic American Historians May Aid Those of the United States.
J. C. Rocca:	The Reform of the Statistical Services of the Cuban Government.
Pedro C. Sánchez:	Geographical Importance of the Volcanic Axis.*
Luis Sánchez Pontón:	Influence of the Geographic Factor in International Relations.*
Alfonso Teja Zabre:	The History of Mexico and its Modern Interpretation.
Carlos M. Trelles:	Cuba from 1500 to 1511.
A. Curtis Wilgus:	Bibliographical Activities in the United States concerning Latin America.*
E. G. Zies:	Volcanoes and Human Geography.*

At the closing session of the Assembly on Saturday, October 19, Dr. John C. Merriam, president of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, was elected president of the Institute. The following address was made by the Hon. Sumner Welles, Assistant Secretary of State of the United States:

MR. PRESIDENT, HONORABLE DELEGATES, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:

Last Monday, it was my privilege to attend the opening meeting of the Second General Assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History. It was with much pleasure that I saw gathered together here in my country the delegates of the various American Republics—men chosen to represent their country because of their unremitting labor in the field of geography or of history—and it is with real regret that I realize this is the final meeting of this body.

During the week that has passed, much has been accomplished. The many learned papers here presented and the discussions which have taken place have afforded these delegates the opportunity to exchange with their colleagues and collaborators the results of their labors; to express the aims and aspirations which they entertain; and to establish those warm personal relationships which often in the last analysis form the basis of understanding and determine the course of progress.

The opportunity to collaborate with investigators of other countries, the encouragement of the publication and distribution of their work among their colleagues in other countries, and the consequent assurance that their work will in this way prove of wide benefit, has stimulated scholars to undertake studies which because of the magnitude of their scope could not be successfully carried through except by international cooperation such as this Institute affords.

Not only are these efforts valuable in the world of geography and history; I am convinced that the interests of peace will be served when knowledge has removed from the picture the geographical uncertainties which so often cause the friction which precedes a conflagration. The lack of accurate surveying and mapping in the Western Hemisphere has sometimes made precise definition of international boundaries impossible. In many instances, the intelligent use of present day resources has brought about the happy solution of difficult problems. A commendable example was set, in the case of the Guatemala-Honduras boundary arbitration, when the international tribunal requested, and the two countries involved ordered, an aerial photographic survey. An accurate map was obtained which made possible an award with a minimum of ambiguity. History must provide the title to the lands in dispute, but geography must apply the delineation of their boundaries. Among the facilities fortunately now available for use in such studies—useful alike to historians and geographers—is the new map of Hispanic-America on the millionth scale, a bold project of mapping more than half of this hemisphere, conducted under the auspices of the American Geographical Society.

In this connection, let me call your attention to the fact that the success of international organizations and institutes similar in their aims to those of the Institute of Geography and History has depended upon the enlistment of students who are able to undertake projects of study with the assistance of such an international institution which they would be unable to pursue advantageously alone. The Institute can play an important role in the slow, patient work of building a wider cultural understanding, the necessity for which we all admit exists. For it cannot be denied that there is in Latin America skepticism as to the existence of interest here in the things of the mind and of the spirit, and that in this country knowledge of Latin American civilization and social institutions is limited. The delegates to this conference, by the fact of their presence, have indicated their interest in cooperative effort in order to increase the scope of knowledge. Inasmuch as many, if not most, of those here are actively engaged in educational activities in their respective countries, they perhaps possess an unusual opportunity for stimulating the interest of their students in the cultural achievements of the nations of this hemisphere. In this country it is extremely gratifying to find that so many educational institutions have realized the importance of introducing the American student to the civilization of the countries south of us. Today, some three hundred colleges and universities are offering over five hundred courses covering every aspect of the literature, history, politics, economics, and art of Latin America—in fact, everything relating to its life and customs. Gratifying as this interest is, considerable ground for improvement exists, and I should like to avail myself of this opportunity to urge that educators in this country, and in the Latin American countries too, increase their efforts, both as to the scope of the subject matter and methods of instruction.

There is no substitute, in my mind, for personal contact with foreign lands for broadening one's vision and point of view. Before the annual conference of the Association of American Colleges this year, I reiterated the value of study abroad, and wish to urge here again that encouragement be given to American students to take advantage of the opportunities for research in Latin America. The young men and women who come here from Latin America as students in our schools,

colleges and universities, are most welcome, and every effort will be made not only to give them an educational training, but to introduce them to the best features of American life.

In conclusion, the value of the Institute to the nations and peoples of the Americas will be in direct proportion to the interest and labor put into it. I sincerely hope that this successful meeting here in Washington will inspire each delegate to urge upon his Government and upon the learned societies and individuals in our several countries the enormous potentialities of the Institute. Those potentialities can be realized to their fullest extent only by the whole-hearted cooperation of all of us.

Resolutions were passed recommending that Governments having groups of indigenous population establish scientific institutes for their study, these institutes to be in close contact with the Pan American Institute of Geography and History; congratulating the Government of Mexico on its work in this regard; and recommending to the member countries the publication of detailed geographical maps and suggesting the cooperation of the Institute in geodetic work; that efforts be made by the American Republics to improve the standard of American legal historical scholarship and advance its scope; that the Convention on the Teaching of History signed at Montevideo in 1933 be signed; that a laboratory devoted to the scientific study of the Pan American population be established and maintained. Still another resolution reads as follows:

WHEREAS, the geographic regions of the American continents are characterized by many features representing inanimate and animate aspects of nature which are characteristic of these regions and not represented elsewhere, it is to the mutual advantage of the American countries to cooperate in the selection and protection of such features or areas containing materials of scientific, economic, intellectual, or spiritual value now and for the future; and

WHEREAS, it is recognized that the abundant remains representing human history of the Americas now being set aside and made the subject of scientific study have value for the future to a considerable extent in proportion to the care which is used for the maintenance of their original characters,

The Second General Assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History

RESOLVES:

1. To recommend to the Governments of the several nations of America that careful attention be given to the selection of such natural features as contain exceptional human values distinctive of the region in which they occur, and that such areas be set aside for protection by the Governments or placed by them under the control of such institutions as are in a position to furnish adequate protection;

2. To recommend also to the several Governments of the countries of America that the most careful study be given to means by which both natural features and regions or sites of historic interest be protected in such manner as to maintain the original values without impairment; and

3. That a committee of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History of not less than five members be appointed to further the study of these problems, and aid so far as possible through action directly by the Institute or through cooperation of Governments of the several American countries.

To give effect to the third paragraph of this resolution, Dr. Wallace W. Atwood was designated chairman of the committee, the other members to be appointed by the chairman after consultation with the Director of the Institute. It was voted that in carrying out the purposes of the resolution the committee will cooperate with the several Governments and will report to the Institute.

During the week of the assembly the delegates were guests at a series of social functions and participated in a number of visits arranged in their honor. The Secretary of State and Mrs. Hull were their hosts at a reception, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union at a luncheon, and the organizing committee at a banquet. Addresses were made on this occasion by Dr. Francisco Castillo Nájera, Ambassador of Mexico; Dr. Oswaldo Aranha, Ambassador of Brazil; Mr. Hunter Miller, historical adviser, Department of State, and Dr. Douglas Johnson, professor of physiography at Columbia University. The delegates were also entertained at luncheon by the Hon. Sumner Welles, Assistant Secretary of State; the Carnegie Institution of Washington, and the Center of Inter-American Studies of George Washington University. The board of trustees of the National Geographic Society tendered a reception to the delegates at which Mr. Bradford Washburn delivered an illustrated talk on the society's 1935 Yukon expedition, of which he was leader. Sessions of the assembly were held at the Library of Congress and the Carnegie Institution of Washington, at both of which special exhibits were arranged. Visits were also made to the National Archives and the National Academy of Sciences, as well as to Mount Vernon.



THE SAGA OF NORDENSKJÖLD'S ANTARCTIC EXPEDITION

By C. J. VIDELA-RIVERO

VERY soon twin-motored airplanes will be zooming again over the frozen South Polar plateau, and Erebus and Terror Gulf, Bransfield Strait and Weddell Sea will be names as familiar to the newspaper reader as Addis Ababa and the Suez Canal. Lincoln Ellsworth has gone there again with his *Wyatt Earp* and his ski-equipped airplane.¹ His plan is to fly across that unknown continent, find the answer to several baffling geographical mysteries and chart as much of the land as feasible.

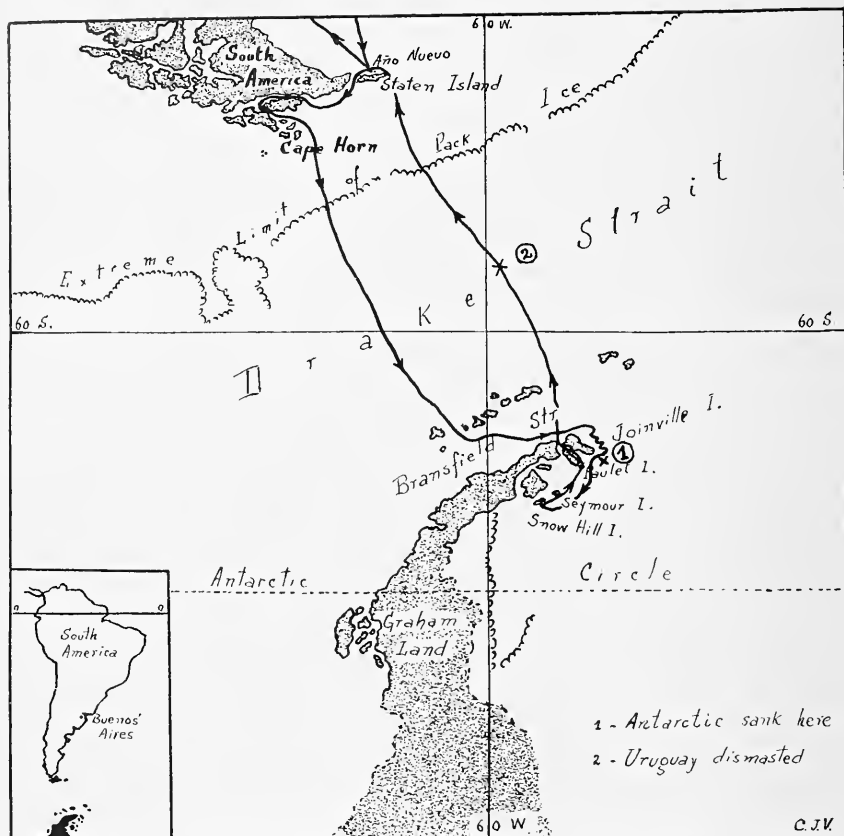
Of course, you have heard of Admiral Byrd and Little America. Hollywood has made an interesting picture from the thousands of feet of film taken by the Admiral down there.

This picture, as well as the press dispatches about Ellsworth's expedition, may give you the impression that polar exploration is a matter of engines, wireless, weather bulletins and gasoline. Let us reassure you: the gasoline era in polar exploration is a thing of this moment. It has been preceded by many decades of pioneering struggle against ice, wind, sea and snow from the sturdy decks of sailing ships, manned by crews who never heard of weather forecasts.

From Admiral Charles Wilkins, U. S. N., who first saw the Antarctic continent on January 16, 1840, to Admiral Byrd, U. S. N., who last saw the South Pole from an airplane in our days, much water has passed under the bridge. In the meantime several hardy explorers have ventured into the mysterious, barren, ice-covered, wind-swept, howling solitude of the South Polar neighborhood: Captain Sir James Clark Ross, Captain Robert F. Scott, Dr. Otto Nordenskjöld, Sir Ernest Shackleton, Roald Amundsen, Dr. Jean Charcot. As distinguished a roster, as you see, as could be assembled. Captain Scott, after untold sufferings, finally reached the South Pole on January 18, 1912. His grave, marked by a humble wooden cross, is occasionally visited nowadays by the crew of some Norwegian whaler in the far South.

For sheer drama, though, no Antarctic expedition has been so thrilling as Nordenskjöld's (1901-03). At the turn of the century, when President McKinley's murder at the hands of the anarchist Czolgosz was still fresh in the minds of everyone, the nations of Europe, enjoying a moment of peace, decided to pool their resources in the service of science and explore the awesome Antarctica. England sent the

¹ At the time when the BULLETIN went to press, Lincoln Ellsworth had not been heard from by radio for several days. It is hoped that communication will soon be reestablished.—EDITOR.



THE REGION OF THE ANTARCTIC SAGA.

The arrowed line indicates the route of the Argentine ship *Uruguay* to Snow Hill and Paulet Islands where the two groups, Dr. Nordenskjöld and Captain Larsen and their companions, were rescued in the Antarctic summer of 1903.

Discovery, commander R. F. Scott, R. N., and Germany the *Gass*, with Professor Erich von Drygalski in charge. The results of their observations would have been rather meagre if a sort of coordinat-ing station had not been established. This was done by Argen-tina, which set up an observatory on the island of Año Nuevo, at latitude 55° south, a little to the northeast of Cape Horn. Then came Sweden's turn: she sent Dr. Nordenskjöld on board the *Antarctic*, Captain Larsen, to explore the polar continent and check on the observations of Año Nuevo.

That was the beginning of the most colorful saga of the South Pole. The *Antarctic* called at Buenos Aires, Argentina, and left on December 21, 1901, never to return. In January, 1902, the Swedish expedition reached Paulet and Seymour islands, near Graham Land (see map), but soon its path was blocked by ice. Bergs and pack appeared everywhere, ominous, threatening. Seamen know that ice does not

threaten idly. So Dr. Nordenskjöld and five companions landed in Snow Hill Island (where Ellsworth found their hut last year) and the *Antarctic* went to South Georgia to winter, with orders to return in the spring to pick up the explorers.

Below the equator February is right in the middle of summer. So, naturally, it was summer in Snow Hill Island, and the temperature was still up to 10° Fahrenheit, with frequent reminders from the pole, in the shape of blizzards, not to take this high thermometer reading too seriously.

Dr. Nordenskjöld and his companions labored feverishly to assemble a portable house brought from Sweden and to build suitable protection for the magnetic and meteorologic instruments, besides setting up a small astronomical observatory. Once this was done, the expedition leader set about his preliminary explorations, which were abruptly terminated by a terrific hurricane that almost buried the living quarters in deep snow. Soon the polar winter set in. Hurricanes ceased to be occasional occurrences and became almost a daily experience, and the thermometer obliged by dropping to 25° Fahrenheit below zero. Soon the astronomical observatory was a pile of débris and the station's boat was lifted bodily by the sea and the wind and smashed against the cliffs of the coast.

There was little to do but wait for spring. Short reconnoissance trips on sleds became impossible, for the wind blew so hard that no progress could be made. Once a large box full of stones was lifted and blown away by the wind.

Water supply was an easy problem: all the cook had to do was reach for snow and melt it. The bill of fare was simple enough: bean or lentil soup, ham, pies, bread, butter, cocoa. Everybody used sleeping bags.

The long winter night finally began to fade away officially, as the first signs of spring were seen, not in actuality but on the wall calendar. In four months summer would be there, and the *Antarctic*, too.

But months went by and there were no signs of either summer or the *Antarctic*. The temperature continued as frigid as ever, being the lowest so far recorded on earth in summer. And the *Antarctic* was no more: on February 12, 1903, after a fantastic fight against the ice, the gallant auxiliary barque had been crushed to death and sunk, far from the winter camp. No SOS had brought other ships rushing to her rescue; nobody but her crew knew what had happened, for Signor Marconi's invention had not yet been put into use on ships. . . .

Summer went and fall came to Antarctica again, and with it all hope of immediate rescue disappeared from Dr. Nordenskjöld's camp. No attempt could be made till after the winter. Another winter in the snow, on the ice, lashed by frozen gales, with provisions running low. Nothing to do but wait, wait. . . .

New Year's Eve, December 31, 1902. The *Antarctic* is returning to pick up Dr. Nordenskjöld and his party; she advances cautiously along the shores of Joinville Island. Suddenly, after turning the north-east point of the island, an immense, limitless field of ice engulfs the ship. Sails and engine become useless ornaments. The vessel is solidly caught in the ice and drifts along with it, to the south, at two miles an hour.

On January 9 the wind shifts to the south, snow begins to fall and a storm is brewing. The iron grip of the ice becomes harder every hour. The stern of the ship rises above the water while beams creak ominously under the terrific pressure. Icebergs clash with thunderous noise. All the crew is on deck when the mate shouts, "All hands to the pumps!" There is a great gaping hole on the starboard side, and the water pours in like a torrent. The end is near. . . .

No, not yet. The ice still holds the ship. Another week passes: January 16. With a jerk the *Antarctic* is cast loose by the ice. She floats again, although surrounded by high, frozen walls. The pumps have been going all the time and the flood is still under control. The sternpost is broken, the propeller-shaft bent. All hope of ever reaching land with the ship is gone. A few more days of gnawing anguish. Will death arrive at midnight or in the morning?

February 12, 1903. All pumps are working feverishly, but the water is rising beyond control. The *Antarctic* is sinking. . . . "All hands on deck!" The Swedish flag is run up to the gaff. "Abandon ship!"

The crew, huddled together on an iceberg, watches the ship go down. The stern sinks first. The mizzenmast hits the iceberg and breaks. The forecabin is slipping down. Only the name is visible now: *Antarctic*. . . . *Antarc* . . . *Ant* . . . she is gone. It is 12:45 p. m.

Hundreds of miles away from civilization, a little group of men stands on an iceberg, floating in the immensity of the Antarctic. The only chance of salvation is to reach Paulet Island, 30 miles to the south, jumping from berg to berg, pushing the provision-laden ship's whaleboat as a sled. The slow trek begins.

All is at the mercy of the ice. Now it runs north, now it turns south. Sometimes, tantalizingly, Paulet Island is brought to a few miles' distance, only to be almost lost on the horizon next morning. . . .

Days. Weeks. February 28. The titanic struggle is won—the shipwrecked crew finally lands in Paulet Island. Now all it has to do is live through the polar winter and wait to be rescued in the summer. . . .

There are now two groups of men stranded on the ice: Dr. Nordenskjöld and his five companions, in Snow Hill Island, hoping for the arrival of the *Antarctic*; on Paulet Island, Captain Larsen, his crew

and the scientists sent by Sweden are asking themselves, "What may have become of Dr. Nordenskjöld?" and hoping, too, that a rescue ship would pick them up before it was too late.

When April, 1903, passed without news of the *Antarctic*, long overdue, the world knew that something was wrong. What had happened? Had the ship sunk in a polar storm? What of the men? These questions popped up in the headlines everywhere in Europe. Anxious relatives of members of the expedition spurred the movement to send rescue ships to Antarctica as soon as conditions allowed it—that is, after winter.



Courtesy of Dr. Carl Skottsberg

THE SINKING OF THE ANTARCTIC.

Crushed by the pressure of the ice, the *Antarctic*, returning to pick up Dr. Nordenskjöld and his party, sank on February 12, 1903.

Not one, but three expeditions were outfitted for this mission. Sweden commissioned the *Fridtjof*, France the *Le Français*, a veteran of many campaigns, and Argentina set about fitting out her first polar ship, the three-masted auxiliary barque, *Uruguay*. The *Uruguay* got there first.

Not before spring, of course. As soon as the preparations race started this iron-hulled ship, hardly fit for that kind of voyage, was rushed into drydock at Buenos Aires. An army of shipwrights and riggers swarmed upon her, tore down her fore-and-aft rigging, replaced it with yards for square sail, built a whaleback poop, lined the hull with steel plates designed to make the ice slide along, installed a new

boiler and engine and generally changed the vessel so that her own builders would never have known her. And as soon as the southern spring had begun to dispel the cold of winter the *Uruguay*, under Lieutenant-Commander Julián Irizar, left Buenos Aires for the South Polar regions, October 8, 1903. And now comes the second act of the great drama.

If the rescuers were determined to reach Antarctica, the ocean was equally determined to stop them. Eventually the rescuers won, although they almost lost the ship in the struggle and when she again showed up in Buenos Aires her rigging was a mess and her hull bore the marks of a real fight.



Courtesy of Dr. Carl Skottsberg.

THE "URUGUAY" LEAVES BUENOS AIRES.

The Argentine auxiliary barque *Uruguay* left Buenos Aires October 8, 1903, for the South Polar regions in search of the *Antarctic* and her men.

Four days south of Cape Horn, steering in the general direction of the pole, the *Uruguay* entered the ice fields. There followed several days of nerve-straining navigation, dodging icebergs to port, starboard and dead ahead. Extra lookouts were kept 24 hours a day in the crow's nest, at the forecandle and on the bridge wings. The weather was foggy and a powerful swell made the little ship roll and pitch incessantly.

The *Uruguay* reached Bransfield Strait and steered through it. The fog had lifted and a fresh wind was blowing. All topgallant and staysails were bent. The strait was free of pack ice and only a few icebergs were seen, stranded or blown ashore. But as soon as the strait

was left behind pack ice appeared again, covering the surface of the water as far as the eye could see. There was only one thing to do: go through it. With the help of the engine the ship ploughed through miles and miles of pack. Finally the open sea was reached, dotted everywhere by gigantic bergs. The vessel had once more to play hide and seek with them, only this time the game was a little more dangerous, for the pole was sending blizzard after blizzard and the visibility was poor. With the cold and the snow the sails became leather-like and the shrouds, ratlines and footropes very slippery; making sail fast was a painful task for bleeding hands.

Meanwhile, the dreary daily grind had finally dulled the hopes of the little ice-bound colony of Snow Hill Island, where thoughts of rescue had begun to be dismissed as idle. There were other things to attend to, of more immediate importance: hunt seals and get penguin eggs, for example, without which dinner time would have meant very little indeed. Thoughts of home, of gay cities, friends and placid Sundays in Sweden had sunk into the dim recesses of memory. Now food was an essential thought. It was there, on the beach, and you had to go out and get it, cracking it over the head with a club, skinning it and dragging it into the hut to become seal stew, accompanied by newly laid eggs—penguins'.

But scientists will be scientists, even at the South Pole. Dr. Nordenskjöld had been carrying on his observations all the time, and as soon as "summer" set in, that is, when the daily hurricane had become only a mere gale and the temperature had shot up to zero, he decided to go on an exploration trip. A dog team was harnessed to his sled and Dr. Nordenskjöld and his companion Jonassen took leave of the little camp. Fifteen days later, after exploring half an hour a day and protecting themselves from the blinding gale the rest of the time, the Swedish scientists arrived at a point near Erebus and Terror Gulf. Suddenly, three black dots appeared somewhere. They were too big to be penguins and they looked like bears ponderously walking on their hind legs.

"Better get your pistol ready, doctor," advised Jonassen. After a moment of hesitation the three bears that walked like men came near enough to be recognized. Behind their long black whiskers, wooden eyeshades and Viking manes Nordenskjöld and Jonassen, speechless with amazement, saw the faces of Dr. Anderson, Lieutenant Duse and a sailor of the *Antarctic*, who, nine and a half months before, had abandoned the ship in the frozen sea and started on the long and painful trek to Snow Hill, where they expected to find Dr. Nordenskjöld and supply him with provisions. Nine and a half nightmarish months on the ice, pulling a sled against the whistling wind, with the snow solidly frozen over their garments and their faces whipped incessantly by the elements. . . .

On October 16, 1903, the five men were at the camp in Snow Hill Island. Questions flew back and forth, but one remained unanswered: What had happened to the *Antarctic* and her men? Bowed heads and silence were the only reply. They did not know that the ship had foundered many months before, and they did not know, or hardly hoped, that another vessel was on its way to them and not far at that very moment. . . .

On November 8, when the small colony had again sunk into dismal, hopeless waiting, human shapes were seen walking toward the camp. Nobody paid much attention. Some of the men had gone in search



Courtesy of Dr. Carl Skottsberg.

THE RESCUE OF THE NORDENSKJÖLD PARTY.

The *Uruguay*, under the command of Lieut. Commander Irizar, took on board the group of men from Snow Hill Island.

of penguin eggs and were thought to be returning. But—what is that? Four men, and a uniform cap? The door of the hut almost falls before the onrush of the men scrambling out after hearing the news. The egg-searching party has come back with Lieut.-Commander Irizar and his chief officer. . . . And there, down the bay, is a ship flying a strange flag, ready to take everyone back to civilization! Providence is taking a hand in the situation.

Indeed. Soon after midnight the dogs begin to bark. It must be the men of the *Uruguay* come to help with the moving. But, great Jove, it isn't! Who is it? Who goes there? Why, it's—yes, it's Captain Larsen, of the *Antarctic*! Name of a thousand whales!

After an absence of two years, when they thought them all dead, Larsen shows up all of a sudden, and on the very day a heaven-sent ship is preparing to take everybody on board!

So the *Antarctic* is lost. And the crew is on Paulet Island. Wait till they see what has happened!

* * *

It's bedtime in Paulet Island and one of the men is cursing the everlasting seal and the everlasting penguin eggs. "Well, don't worry," says the mate, "maybe to-morrow a ship will come right here and you'll be eating caviar and drinking champagne." This intended joke falls flat. You should not make jokes like that. Death is not to be laughed at. Silently every man slips into his sleeping bag. In the morning they'll go out and get some more seals and penguin eggs.

In the morning they awaken with a start. What was that noise? Oh, it's imagination. Back to sleep. Again the noise. And then they all jump out of their bags. Yes, yes, it's a ship's siren! And a scramble to the door. And there she is, less than a pistol shot distance, blowing her siren to beat the band. Hurrah!

Roll call on the *Uruguay*: Dr. Otto Nordenskjöld, chief of the Swedish expedition; Captain Carl A. Larsen, master of the *Antarctic*; Dr. K. A. Anderson, botanist; Dr. Carl Skottsberg, botanist; Dr. G. Bodman, meteorologist; Lieut. José M. Sobral, Argentine, member of the expedition; Lieut. L. A. Duse, cartographer; Andreas Carlsen, engineer; L. Andreasen, H. Hashun, Aksel Reinholtz, mates; and 15 men of the crew. Only one man is not there. He is resting forever in the grave his companions dug for him in the ice: his name was Wannersgaard.

Clear to sail! Blocks creak, ropes tauten, yards are trimmed, sails fill out and the ship is under way. How fine a deck feels under one's feet after two years in the ice!

Again the icebergs loom everywhere. Again the pack ice has to be cut through. Again the lookouts strain their eyes in the crow's nest. But who cares? No more seal, no more penguin eggs. And the man got his champagne. And there is Home at the end of this voyage.

Not so fast. The ice is now behind the *Uruguay's* counter, but the sea is very much here, and is getting angrier every hour. Everything on deck is firmly lashed. Day after day the waves are breaking over the forecastle, flooding the main deck with swirling foam and going out in a stream through the scuppers when the ship rolls that way. The freezing wind whistles through the rigging. In come the top-gallant sails. Only the strongly reefed topsails belly out with the gale. Even this is too much. The seas are coming continually over

the side and the roll is awful now. The gale does not whistle any more through the rigging—it screams. It's a 65-mile hurricane and she is rolling 42 degrees. The order comes, "Heave to!"

She is hove to in the midst of the hurricane, rolling and pitching like a cork. In the saloon as in the forecaskle men eat standing with legs braced against bulkheads and stanchions to keep their balance. Nobody sleeps; hammocks swing like trapezes and bunks spill out their occupants. One thought is in every mind: Will she stand it?

At dawn on November 16 the main mast creaks and breaks under the dreadful strain of the gale. A moment later it falls to starboard, dragging along sails, yards, stays and shrouds. The wind howls louder as minutes pass and the whole sea is boiling in the storm. Gigantic walls of water fall on the *Uruguay*, carrying away this and that. And then, at one bell in the forenoon watch, the foremast begins to give way. Up rush bos'n and carpenter with axes and chop away the topmast before it breaks and falls on deck. The broken spar falls to port and the ship is now dismasted.

Now, thinks the captain, the currents will carry this flotsam to the south and the *Fridtjof* will see it and think we, too, are lost.



DISMASTING THE "URUGUAY."

Under the battering of the hurricane the main mast and then the foremast break. The bos'n and carpenter are chopping away the foretopmast.



Courtesy of Dr. Carl Skottsberg.

THE RETURN OF THE "URUGUAY."

The rescue ship, dismasted, arrives in Buenos Aires—the end of its errand of mercy.

A few days later, having blown itself blue in the face, the gale subsides. The *Uruguay* is under way with engine and jury rig. On November 22 she comes into Santa Cruz harbor, where there is a telegraph office, and Commander Irizar sends the first report on Nordenskjöld's fate. The cable picks up the news in Buenos Aires and next morning it is carried under banner headlines in the newspapers of Europe. On December 2, 1903, the Argentine capital is alive with flags and bunting and crowds and *vivas* as the *Uruguay* lands Dr. Nordenskjöld and his party.

Thirty-two years have passed since. Airplanes are flying over the Pole. Most of the men of the *Antartic* and the *Uruguay* are dead. Dr. Carl Skottsberg, now a world-renowned savant, lives in Gothenburg, Sweden, where he is director of the Botanical Garden and professor at the famous university. Yale had him as visiting professor last year. From Sweden he and Dr. Bodman, also a famous scientist now, have sent us the photographs you see. The gallant *Uruguay* is no more, but she lives in the memory of the brave seamen and men of science whom she rescued so many years ago.

CHRISTMAS IN ANDACOLLO

By RUTH SEDGWICK, M. A.

Department of Romance Languages, Mount Holyoke College

IT is Christmas day when we leave La Serena, a city in north central Chile whose dignified old churches peacefully face plazas and parks full of roses, climbing vines or high geranium bushes with huge blossoms in the most varied shades of pink, red and magenta. After about half an hour's ride our car starts to crawl along the narrow road which winds over the mountains, and we join that interminable line of pilgrims en route to the sanctuary of the *Virgen del Rosario* of Andacollo, some 40 miles or more from La Serena. Around the many hairpin curves we come upon cars and carts filled with people, as well as men and women on horse- or donkeyback. The women may hold a bundle of food or clothing or a child on their laps. The poor people go on foot, often barefoot, while others better off walk up the mountain without shoes as a *manda* which they penitently perform with the desire of obtaining some favor which they have asked of the Virgin. Such a procession has been trudging up the mountain for several days and gives us a premonition of the crowds we shall find in the town of our destination.

When we finally reach the summit, we have a view of Andacollo nestling among a group of poplar trees which fairly bristle from the dusty grey hills covered only by short cactus plants, with the higher cordillera of the Andes forming an impressive background in the distance. Upon entering the town we find a long street flanked by one-story houses whose doorsteps are on the very edge of the road. In front of the houses there is a line of tables on which peddlers have spread their wares: dolls, trinkets, handkerchiefs and all kinds of clothing. Women squat on the ground before charcoal fires over which they are frying the ubiquitous *empanada* (a sort of small, individual meat pie), to be washed down with a glass of *chicha* (a fermented drink made in Chile from grapes or apples), while elsewhere there are piles of candy, fruit, and other edibles.

Andacollo is famous in the history of Chile for the streams of gold that have flowed out of its river bed. The deposits were exploited even under Inca domination, when they were the exclusive property of the Emperor. After the arrival of the Spaniards they were divided as special prizes for the conquering captains. In the colonial period and during the early days of independence the gold from Andacollo

was the mainstay of the national treasury, and again during the recent years of depression its exploitation has been actively fostered by the Government.

However, the picturesque significance of Andacollo lies in the annual December pilgrimage to worship its Virgin. The tradition concerning the origin of the statue, which strongly reminds one of that of the Virgin of Guadalupe in Mexico, is as follows. An Indian woodcutter named Collo had a vision in which a celestial figure appeared to him saying: "*Anda, Collo, recorre los cerros, que la riqueza y la felicidad te esperan. Busca.*" ("Go, Collo, and explore the hills, for wealth and

THE NEW CHURCH AT ANDACOLLO.

The plaza in front of the church is the scene of a picturesque procession of worshippers when the statue of the Virgin is transferred from the old church to the new for the ceremonies on December 25 and 26.



Photograph by Ruth Sedgwick.

happiness await you. Search.") The Indian obeyed, although he did not know just what he was looking for. When one day his hatchet struck something strange, he dug around the tree and uncovered a statue of the Virgin about three feet high; she carries the Child on her left arm. The Indian placed the figure upon an altar which he erected in his hut, and the Virgin became the object of devotion of all his poor and humble neighbors. Collo soon discovered a great deal of

gold, and miracles of many kinds were said to have been performed. When the Church heard of these miracles, an investigation was made, and as a result a temple was erected for the Virgin. But her guardian and the real head of her cult has always been until recent years a descendant of Collo himself, and it is said that when anyone has tried to move the statue without his consent, it takes on the weight of a mountain. Some people say that the figure originally came from Peru, while others claim that it was brought directly from the mother country by the sculptor who made it. It is probable that it had been buried by one of the two Spanish founders of the city of La Serena who had managed to escape from the terrible Indian massacre of 1549.

The little town of Andacollo begins to bulge with people several days before Christmas. Even on the twenty-third of December groups dance at the feet of the Virgin and tell her what has been happening to them during the past year. On the twenty-fifth they carry her in solemn procession from her usual abode above the altar of the Old Church to the New Church, a cathedral-like building constructed through donations and gifts that have been made to her. But the twenty-sixth is the special day of festivities, for it is then that the town is packed with more than thirty thousand visitors representing all classes of society and several nationalities. At 10 o'clock in the morning the high mass begins, with the bishop of La Serena officiating and many church dignitaries assisting; they walk to the altar through an aisle formed by the dancers in their picturesque costumes. The seats have been removed from the church and during the long service the people usually stand or kneel. However, not a few old women squat on the floor while some of the weary musicians sit on their drums. As an act of penance others walk on their knees from the door to the feet of the Virgin, carrying a lighted candle in each hand. In fact, practically everyone holds at least one candle as a votive offering to the Virgin, and the press of the crowd, the smoke of the candles and the incense are almost suffocating.

When the service is over the Virgin is brought to the door and left at the entrance of the church. One group after another dances up to her. A spokesman chants their petitions in a mournful sort of improvised popular verse, and then they dance off again, never turning their backs upon her.

At about 5 o'clock begins the famous procession, in which the Virgin's followers carry her around the plaza, taking her back to the Old Church where she will remain until their return next year. On this occasion one can best see the dancers in full action and all their finery. Some groups announce the approach of the time for the procession by stationing themselves at intervals in the plaza, forming a sort of aisle for the others to pass through

First come the so-called *turbantes*, who are dressed all in white. A bright red, blue or green ribbon band embroidered in silk or in bead-work is slung over one shoulder, while on their heads they wear a white turban-like cap heavily ornamented in beads, which looks much like a fancy wedding or birthday cake. Usually hanging from under the cap down over the shoulders is a white veil or piece of net, or perhaps just a handkerchief. Each group of *turbantes* is led by one of its members, who carries a beautiful large banner embroidered with either the picture of the Virgin or some design indicating the region from which they come. There are also a good many smaller banners, and in fact every man who is not beating a little drum is carrying some kind of a flag. Flags of practically all the foreign nations are displayed in the procession as well as on the posts in front of the



Photograph by Ruth Sedgwick.

DANCE OF THE TURBANTES.

Leading the procession of dancers are the groups of *turbantes* whose white garments are set off with brightly ornamented turban-like caps and vivid bands worn over the shoulder. Banners picturing the Virgin are interspersed with flags of foreign nations.

church. After the *turbantes* have paraded around, they stand aside and let the rest of the procession pass through their files.

Although all the dancers are generally called *chinos* (servants of the Virgin), the use of the name is more accurately limited to a certain type of group, which has the privilege of dancing immediately in front of the Virgin. Their dances are more primitive and their clothes more brilliant than any others in the procession. They wear a fancy

version of the costume of the Chilean miner of olden days: a bright colored shirt, perhaps of sateen, with some embroidery in silk or beads on the front, and rather tight fitting trousers of the same color and material with a little embroidery near the bottom of each leg, from which protrudes narrow white ruffling or fringe. The wide, bright colored belt is either of cloth or of leather heavily studded with spangles, beads, or bits of glass, and in back there hangs down a wide piece of goat skin, the ancient miner's apron. On their heads are tight fitting caps of the same color and cloth, also embroidered, some being pointed in shape, while others are shaped like trench caps. One group is dressed all in purple, another in bright green, another in red, and another in brown.

Some of the *chinos* beat crude-looking drums, while others blow large, flattened reed pipes wrapped in ribbon or strips of cloth matching the costume. Another will have a cornet, or cymbals, or a triangle, and there may also be an accordion or two. On the pipes they blow a plaintive repetition of two notes, one up and the other down, the rhythm beaten off by the staccato of the drums, and these two notes, which one hears in Andacollo at all hours of the day and night, still ring in the visitor's ears long after he has left the town.

It is almost impossible to describe the dances. The *turbantes* move in a sort of pattern around a circle, and their steps, which include swinging back and forth on one foot and the other and also hopping with complicated stamping and tapping, are done in a very dignified manner. The dances are punctuated with drum beats and accompanied by a swinging of the small flags, which are waved in a sort of scooping gesture. But the steps of the *chinos* are more interesting because in their primitiveness they seem to hark back to an Indian origin. Dancing bent over, the men hop on one foot and then on the other. Next they fling one leg to the right and the other to the left and then make a half circle. These same movements are repeated over and over again. The *chinos* gradually get worked up, especially when dancing close to the Virgin, until they seem to be throwing themselves from one side to the other in a sort of frenzy, all to the slow rhythm of the drum and the pipe; while others leap into the air, making a complete turn as they do so. The steps are curious, and it is interesting to note that Ricardo E. Latcham has pointed out the similarity of some of them to those of the so-called ostrich dance in which the Indians imitated the leaps of that Patagonian bird.¹

An indigenous strain of blood is apparent in the faces of many of these dancers. Of dark complexion, their gentle, delicate features are

¹ Orígenes de la sociedad . . . de las araucanos, p. 257. Santiago de Chile, Imprenta universitaria, 1914.

practically expressionless, with the exception of that look of profound gravity which never seems to abandon them. And Ricardo Latham finds in these groups, called *bailes* or *cofradías*, survivals of the secret societies of the Indians. The groups usually consist of from 15 to 35 or 40 dancers. One may either inherit membership or be elected to the group, which is usually joined in childhood or youth. The children, whose costumes are exact copies of those of their fathers, are very sweet and serious, while on the other hand several old men actually seem to be tottering under the exertion of the strenuous dances. The head of all the groups is the *cacique general*; for many, many years this office was held by a descendant of Collo. He was the custodian of the Virgin, without whose permission the statue could not be moved.

At last the Virgin comes, borne on the shoulders of some of her most devoted followers and preceded by a *baile* of *chinos* who are throwing themselves at her feet in the weird leaps of their frenzied dance. She is set off in a beautiful frame of thickly-massed carved roses. She is small in stature, with delicate features and dark complexion, proudly wearing a profusion of short, blonde curls. Dressed in a gorgeous long white robe heavily embroidered in gold, the Virgin holds in her right hand a large gold cane, while on her left arm she carries the Christ-child dressed like herself. A long, heavy gold chain set off at intervals with enormous gold beads hangs about her neck: about her waist is wrapped a wide red sash, beautifully embroidered, which marks her as a *china*, reminding us of the broad belts of her devoted servants or *chinos*. Both Mother and Child wear handsome crowns of gold heavily studded with emeralds and other precious stones.

This is only a choice of the many costly robes and brilliant jewels belonging to her wardrobe carefully stored away behind the altar in the Old Church where she stands during the year upon an ornate solid silver pedestal. They are presents from her wealthy admirers. But in glass cases are collected the vivid testimonials of the miracles she has performed for her more humble devotees. There are little



Photograph by Ruth Sedgwick.

THE VIRGIN OF ROSES.

Framed in a bower of roses, the richly attired Virgin is borne by her followers back to the old church for another year.

gold crutches, spurs, a pair of glasses, a tiny boat, a little gold sword, an arm, an eye, etc.

The Virgin is beloved by all classes of society, not only by the wealthy but also by the soldier or the sailor who has called upon her in the hour of danger, and very especially by the common laborer who works on the farms or in the mines. It is this humble peon who looks upon her as his beloved one, or *china*, and who has willingly walked, perhaps barefoot, many miles to attend the festival, who sleeps on the ground or hard floor in Andacollo and eats meagerly or even fasts during this pilgrimage, yet who still has strength to dance untiringly at her feet day after day.

Deeply impressed by the earnestness and sincerity of the worshipers, one forgets the grotesque features of the ceremony. One overlooks that admixture of pagan and Christian so evident in the costumes, the music, and especially the steps of the dances. Undoubtedly the first dances held, according to Galleguillos, in 1584, were merely adaptations to Christian purposes of indigenous ceremonies, and one regrets that no detailed interpretive study has been made of the historical and spiritual significance of the different features of the festivities, which are evidently so deeply impregnated with tradition.²

The visitor leaves the little town of Andacollo with the feeling that he has witnessed scenes which he can never forget. As he looks back on it all, the ceremonies seem to have been a strange, fantastic dream entirely out of the range of our everyday prosaic life. The flash of beads in the bright sun beating down from a cloudless summer sky in semitropical northern Chile, the riot of vivid colors in the costumes, the leaps and dizzy turns of the frenzied dancers, the shrieking of pipes on the two plaintive up-down notes punctuated by the beating of drums, and above all the tenseness and sincerity of the faces of the devoted *chinos*, impress one with a sense of the powerful spiritual force of the humble worshipers of the *Virgen del Rosario* of Andacollo.

² F. Galleguillos. Una visita a la Serena, Andacollo . . . La Serena, 1896.



SOURCES OF AMERICAN HISTORY IN SPANISH ARCHIVES¹

By ROSCOE R. HILL, Ph. D., Litt. D.

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TO know the history of the beginnings of European activities in the Americas, recourse must be had to the extensive documentary sources reposing in the Spanish archives. The successors of Columbus crossed and recrossed the American continents from the plains of the western United States to the dreary wastes of southern Patagonia. They have left a record of their trials and achievements—incomplete at times, full and detailed at others—and this is the story of Spanish colonial endeavor.

The doughty sons of Spain traversed the western sea to a new world, impelled by the three motives, faith, fame and fortune. To carry their Christianity, which for centuries they had defended against the Moors, to a benighted people became their new crusade—the extension of their faith. To participate in the exploits of discovery, conquest and colonization was an invitation to the acquisition of fame—the attainment of honor, if they ever returned to the home land. To share in the wealth of new found empires afforded dazzling possibilities for acquiring fortune—the satisfaction of their desires for well-being. These sons of Spain, by their exploits and achievements during more than three centuries, have left the impress of their civilization as a heritage to twenty-one nations. Their laws, their customs, and their religion were transplanted and today remain the foundation of a new world civilization.

Spain has been fortunate in preserving so complete a record of this fascinating story. This good fortune has not been due to mere accident but rather to the planning of men who were interested in the conservation of her documents. As early as 1539, the first work of preparing the castle at Simancas for the reception and preservation of the papers relating to the royal patrimony and the affairs of state was begun. On June 30, 1544, the emperor Charles V ordered that the president and members of the Council of the Indies take steps to gather together all the documents concerning the Indies which were to be found in the office of its Secretary, in the Casa de la Contratación and in other offices, and to deposit them in the Archive at Simancas. Apparently this work proceeded slowly, for it was not until

¹ Paper read before the Second Assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History at a session held in the Library of Congress, October 16, 1935.

1567 that the first documents were transferred from the Council of the Indies to Simancas. In 1588, Philip II named Diego de Ayala his archivist and provided that the son of the latter should succeed to the post. At the time of making the appointment, the King issued an interesting instruction on archival procedure and practice. The documents were to be preserved in the classification established by Diego de Ayala and proper safeguards to protect them from fire were to be taken. Important documents were to be copied in order to avoid excessive wear on the originals, and inventories and indexes, as well as a record of curious and notable events, were to be made. Details regarding hours of office, cleaning of documents, making of searches and certifying of copies were all set forth. No fire or light was to be permitted in the archive, which should be opened and closed only during daylight.

Philip IV in 1633 repeated the instruction of his predecessor and gave additional orders respecting the proper care and administration of the archive. It was provided that the archive should be swept every Friday and that the archivist should make an inspection every Saturday, replacing bundles which were out of place, rewrapping those with torn wrappers and looking out for rats and other vermin injurious to the papers. Although the documents in Spain, as in many other places, have suffered greatly from neglect, these and other instructions indicate that there was a continuing interest in the preservation, classification and use of those papers referring to the business of the nation. From time to time during the following century and a half, other measures were taken with reference not only to the documents of Castile but also to those of the Indies.

The establishment of an archive especially dedicated to the preservation of the records concerning the Spanish colonial activities was accomplished by Charles III. Juan Bautista Muñoz, who was commissioned to write a general history of the Indies, found that the documents necessary for preparing this work were scattered in many places. He also discovered that the papers respecting the Indies deposited at Simancas were poorly cared for and in great confusion and disorder. Muñoz therefore proposed the establishment of a general Archive of the Indies and was supported in this by José de Gálvez, the Minister of the Indies. The latter recommended as a suitable place for the new institution, the Lonja in Seville, since this building had ceased to be used as the home of the House of Trade which directed the commercial relationship of Spain with the New World. Prior to these proposals, commissioners had been appointed by the King in 1778 to separate the papers in Simancas dealing with the colonies. And in the same year, Fernando Martínez Huete, who had organized the Archive of the Escribanía de Cámara del Consejo, was named as a commissioner to inspect all the archives and public establishments in

Seville and Cadiz, which contained documents on the Indies. Finally, Muñoz was ordered to proceed with the founding of the new institution. He has left a very interesting report regarding the conception of the idea for the Archive of the Indies and the preparation of the Lonja as the archival depository. The outer corridor of the upper floor of the building remains today in the form in which it was arranged at the close of the eighteenth century. The long corridors with their arches and domed ceiling and floors of varicolored marble from Malaga, arranged in interesting patterns, present vistas of elegance. To this is added the Cuban mahogany cases of a most ornate character, ranged on either wall. The inner corridor of the upper floor has



Courtesy of the Embassy of Spain, Washington

THE GENERAL ARCHIVE AT SIMANCAS.

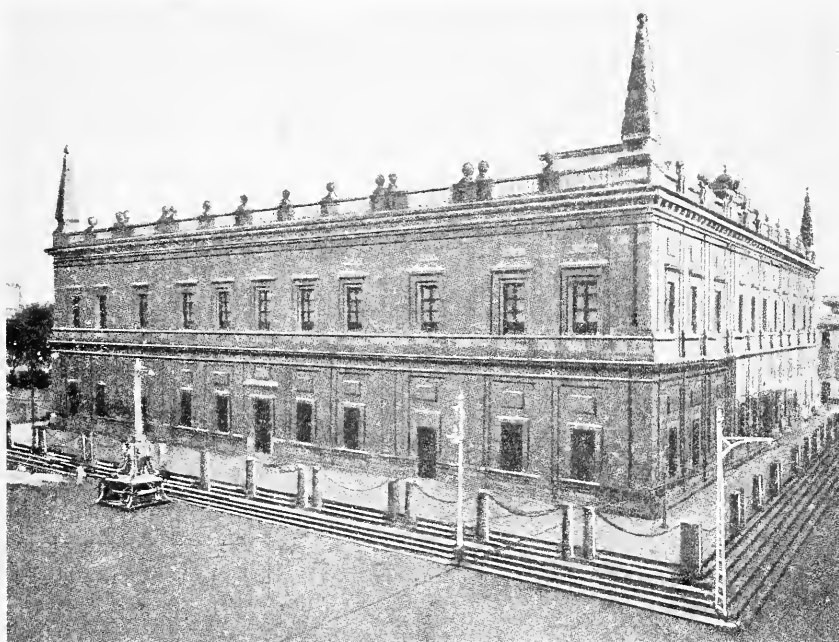
This XII century castle, near Valladolid, was designated in 1539 as the first national repository of papers relating to Spanish affairs of state. Though much documentary material has been removed to the Archive at Seville, Simancas is still a source of valuable information concerning the early history of the American continents.

been modified and on the ground floor, in recent years, steel cases have been installed for shelving the bundles. Otherwise, the building remains much the same as it was when it was first dedicated to the purpose of housing materials referring to the history of the Indies.

The first papers to be deposited in the new archive came from Simancas. These papers, which had been separated by the royal commissioners, were boxed and prepared for shipment in 1784 and 1785. On the 20th and 21st of September of the latter year, 255 boxes of documents were dispatched. The transfer was effected in two sections, consisting of 11 and 13 carts respectively, which were in charge of two of the newly appointed assistant archivists and were

each guarded by a military detachment. These detachments were so large and attracted so much attention, that orders were given in Madrid that only a corporal and four soldiers should continue with each group of carts to Seville and that the remainder of the troops should return to Valladolid. The documents from Simancas arrived on the 14th of October. From that date until 1903 numerous additional transfers of documents to Seville have taken place. Thus there have been accumulated at the Archivo General de Indias a mass of material from the secretariats of the Council of the Indies, the Casa de la Contratación, the Contaduría (accounting office) and the Escribanía (judicial secretariat) of the Council of the Indies, the Ministries of the Indies and Ultramar and the archive of the Captain General of Cuba. These documents have been classified in 12 sections in such manner as to preserve the identity of origin in each case.

For the regulation and good conduct of the Archivo General de Indias, a detailed set of rules, signed by Charles IV and his Minister, Antonio Porlier, was issued on January 10, 1790. Though it is not known who drafted this document the fact is that it is a notable manual of archival procedure and practice. The principal task imposed upon the archivist was "to classify and arrange the papers with such method and order that any of them can be found quickly and easily." The general principle of respect for the office of origin was laid down, as well as a respect for the prior organization of the documents, whether classified subjectively, chronologically or alphabetically. Inventories and indexes were to be prepared and those formulated in conformity with this order still serve as guides to the sources of the archive. Papers received, which were classified and in good order, were to remain in this form. With respect to other documents, especially those relative to general administration received from Simancas, which were at that time in great disorder, detailed indications as to organization and classification were set forth. The arrangement of the documents made by the archivist in accordance with the system provided in the royal order still obtains in the archive. Besides matters of classification and organization, the regulations specified the manner of conducting the archive. Cleanliness was to be the rule with no dust or dirt allowed. The archive was to be swept with wet sawdust once each week under the careful inspection of a junior archivist, with a general cleaning once each year. No papers were to be removed from the archive except upon royal order and strict rules and a schedule of prices were fixed with reference to supplying copies. Measures for the prevention of fire were laid down, the hours of office were indicated, and arrangements for the financial matters of the archive were set forth. Apparently it was not intended that general investigation by outsiders would be permitted, since no provision was made for the admittance of scholars.



THE ARCHIVE OF THE INDIES, SEVILLE.

Erected in 1598 to house the board which administered Spain's trade with the colonies, this building was selected as the repository for papers bearing on the empire's relations with the New World. From the transfer of documents, beginning in 1785, it has developed into the world's greatest treasure house of historical material bearing on the Americas under Spanish rule.

Although it was the intention of the Crown to bring together into one depository all the materials which related to the colonies, this idea never has been fully accomplished, even though at a much later date a chief of the Archive of the Indies called attention to the matter and a royal decree was issued providing for the completion of the work. As a result, students find that while the *Archivo General de Indias* remains as the real starting point for the study of all Spanish colonial activity, it is still necessary to visit the two other national repositories, the *Archivo Histórico Nacional* and the *Archivo General de Simancas*, each of which possesses a great wealth of documents that deal with the actuation of Spain in the New World.

In these three archives repose the documents accumulated in the governmental offices in Spain which had to do with the administration of the oversea colonies. The *Casa de la Contratación*, the Council of the Indies and its fiscal and judicial dependencies as well as the various ministries received and drafted the documents which serve to tell the story of Spanish endeavor. Among them are found the letters, reports, diaries, petitions, accounts, proceedings and all

other original papers which reached the Spanish government from the colonies. Viceroy, governors, and other administrative officers, judges of the *audiencias*, archbishops, bishops, priests, members of the religious orders, and other subjects of the Crown contributed their share in recounting events and depicting conditions throughout the colonial dominions, even to the far flung frontiers of the American possessions. Problems of discovery, settlement and colonization, details of general political administration, questions regarding conversion of the natives and the relations of Europeans and natives, economic matters and fiscal difficulties, reports on trade, commerce, and shipping, particulars concerning military organization and expeditions to subject the native races or conquer new regions, were all submitted to the Crown.

The consideration of these problems by the home government led to lengthy discussions and the determination of imperial policy. Abstracts, memoranda, and recommendations to the Crown were prepared by the governmental agencies. Final decisions having been reached, instructions and orders to the colonial officials were drafted. These drafts and the register books of royal orders, *cédulas*, and decrees are still extant among the archival papers. Trade regulations, rules for the treatment of the Indians, orders for expeditions of discovery, exploration and conquest, commissions and instructions for colonial officials, directions for the collection of revenues and conducting the fiscal affairs, provisions regarding religious matters which were entrusted to the Crown by the Pope, are some of the types of materials to be found.

There are still other documents of a special character to be found in the respective sections of the several archives. These comprise accounts of the merits and services of the first discoverers and conquerors, reports of commissions and special representatives of the Crown, and investigations (*residencias*) of the activities of the colonial officials at the close of their term of service. Then there are the papers of the Casa de la Contratación which controlled the trade to the Indies, including lists of passengers, registers of ships and merchandise despatched or received, and records of other pertinent matters which are set down with meticulous care.

The quantity of these archival sources is shown by the fact that in Seville there are approximately 35,052 bundles containing several millions of individual documents. The number of bundles in the archives at Madrid and Simancas referring to the Americas has never been estimated. The general disposition of the materials in the three archives is as follows. In Seville are found documents relating to Columbus and the exploits of the early explorers; a great mass of administrative materials from the Council of the Indies and the various ministries in the sections of *Audiencias*, *Estado*, and *Ultramar*;

judicial papers; fiscal papers; and a special collection known as the Cuban Papers containing documents transferred from the New World to Seville. In Madrid are located papers dealing with Spanish governmental policy and diplomatic relations with reference to the colonies. Here are found records of the Council of Castile, the Council of the Indies, the Inquisition and the military orders; papers of the ministers as well as judicial proceedings and fiscal accounts. At Simancas there still remain papers pertaining to general policies and diplomatic relations similar in character to those at Madrid. Here also are documents of the War and Navy Departments.

Each of the Spanish archives has its scheme of classification with corresponding inventories. It is true that the entries in these inventories are all too brief, and that there are no descriptive guides except in a few instances. Extensive indexing, carding and calendaring have never been carried out nor have the inventories even been published in their entirety. Although there are some helpful guides, the feeling still obtains that the Spanish archives are something of an impenetrable maze. This, however, is not fully true, for the earnest scholar by the use of the inventories and with a general knowledge of the archival organization can make his way successfully in any of the repositories. Moreover, he always encounters the sympathetic helpfulness and unfailing courtesy of the archivists in charge of the repositories.

As has already been indicated, early use of the Spanish archives for writing American history was made by Juan Bautista Muñoz for his general history of America. Later Martín Fernández de Navarrete undertook the collection and publication of documents referring to Columbus and his successors in their voyages to the New World. Contemporary with Navarrete, Washington Irving and William H. Prescott utilized materials deposited in some of the Spanish archives for their classical works on Spanish discovery and exploration. The first American to receive permission to work in the Archivo General de Indias was Francisco Adolfo Varnhagen, attaché of the Brazilian Legation at Lisbon, who was granted access by royal order of the twenty-second of January, 1846. Representatives of Chile, Costa Rica, and Nicaragua received like permission a few years later. Shortly after the middle of the nineteenth century, the Spanish government began to make available in published form many documents relating to America in the *Colección de documentos inéditos relativos al descubrimiento, conquista y organización de las antiguas posesiones de América y Oceanía*, which was but the beginning of the more extensive exploitation of these sources for American history.

With the growth of the national consciousness of the American Republics, and with the development of their territories, boundary disputes arose in many parts of Spanish America. In the process

of adjusting the conflicting claims, recourse was had repeatedly to the Spanish archives in order to establish the respective pretensions. The archives supplied plans and maps as well as other data respecting the extent of administrative areas of the several provinces which afterwards became the Spanish American Republics. Among the arbitrations in which the claimants made extensive use of materials from Spain may be mentioned those of Costa Rica-Colombia, Peru-Bolivia, Nicaragua-Honduras, Colombia-Venezuela, British Guiana-Venezuela, Ecuador-Peru, Costa Rica-Panama and Honduras-Guatemala.

The more scientific use of the Spanish archives for the history of America began at the close of the 19th century. The leaders of the movement in the United States of America were Professors Bernard Moses at the University of California, William R. Shepherd at Columbia University and Herbert E. Bolton at the University of Texas, who gave the earliest courses on Spanish American history. Another important factor was the work of the Carnegie Institution of Washington in preparing guides to the materials in the archives. The publication of selected documents either in the original or in translation, greatly assisted in making known the value and extent of the materials in Spain. In Argentina the work of the Instituto de Investigaciones Históricas at Buenos Aires, under the efficient direction of Dr. Emilio Ravignani, has been noteworthy in collecting and utilizing materials from Spain in order to tell more fully the early history of the country. Thus it is to be observed that among the countries whose scholars have dedicated themselves to the study of American colonial history in the Spanish archives, Argentina and the United States hold a prominent place.

Few original documents remain in the United States relative to the Spanish regime within its area. These comprise the East Florida papers, the New Mexican archives and some papers in the Cabildo of New Orleans. Consequently, students of this country more than others have been forced to go to Spain to collect the materials for the history of this epoch. They, more than those of the other American republics, have devoted themselves to the colonial history of America in general rather than limiting their studies to their own country. On the other hand, in most Spanish American countries there exist extensive collections of documents relating to the colonial period. This is especially true in Mexico, Lima, Buenos Aires and Bogotá where the viceregal archives and those of other colonial offices still exist. In these archives the materials are a counterpart of those found in Spain. That is, in America are found the original communications from Spain and the drafts of those dispatched by the colonial officials, while in Spain are found the

original letters from the colonies and the drafts of the orders sent out by the Crown. Thus to a less extent has it been necessary for these countries to go to Spain for materials on their early history. This does not mean that they have neglected to do so. Notable scholars have made extensive researches, but at least one Spanish American historian was led to remark that all too often the proposal to make investigations in the Archives of the Indies was a mere excuse to secure through political favor a trip to Europe at the expense of the government.

A word of warning should be given regarding the published collections of documents. Too often they have been poorly done, on account of errors in copying or carelessness in editing. The same observation can be made of many of the transcripts which have been brought to America from the Spanish archives. American students who avail themselves of these transcripts are often in grave danger of falling into grievous error. To offset the defects of transcripts, during recent years, photographic reproductions have been used extensively. This method is far superior for the scholar who is unable to make the trip to Spain. But such reproduction best serves for the study of a specific subject or in a more general way, for the illustration of the history of a given country. The Library of Congress of the United States has secured a very large collection of materials for the history of the area within the United States which at one time was subject to Spain. But this system, however efficient and admirable, really should not be employed to the entire exclusion of visiting the Spanish archives where the original documents in their proper environment may be consulted with such great facility.

To present a bibliography of the works which have resulted from the use, either directly or indirectly, of the materials in Spanish archives relating to American history would unduly extend this paper. Such a bibliography, however, would show most concretely the vast wealth of the materials and the wide breadth of interest of those who have exploited them for scholarly purposes.

It should be added here that despite all the interest which has been manifested and the labor which has been devoted in presenting the story of American colonization as recorded in the Spanish archives, there yet remain many fields which can profitably be investigated and which when the scholarly studies are made will throw much additional light on the life and times of the peoples of Spanish colonial America. Biography, economic and fiscal history and other phases of colonial activity afford many opportunities. Among the records which offer widest fields for further research may be mentioned the accounts of the fiscal agencies, judicial proceedings, papers of the House of Trade,

diplomatic correspondence and documents of the Inquisition in America. There is scarcely a topic however, which does not involve study in all three centers, and if any student should rely on Seville alone, as others have in the past, most surely some important point will be overlooked.

In conclusion, the location of the documents on American history in the three great archival repositories must be referred to again. There are those who lament the fact that all the documents dealing with America have not been concentrated in Seville. It is a question whether this would be most advisable or even feasible and possible. The materials connected with the Indies which remain at Simancas and Madrid comprise two classes of documents. First, those which probably could be transferred and secondly, those regarding which there is grave question as to advisability of transfer. In the first class are found the papers of the Council of the Indies, including those of the Escribanía de Cámara (Justice), at Madrid and those of the Ministries of War and Marine relating to the Indies located at Simancas. In the second group are documents from the Council of Castile, as well as from the various Ministries that were later established. These, while more general in character, at the same time relate in a measure to the Indies. In addition there is the great mass of diplomatic documents dealing with the relations between Spain, England, France and Portugal, which continually touch upon colonial problems and which should under no circumstances be divided on the basis of colonial and non-colonial subjects. In fact, it would appear that the student who must visit Simancas, Madrid and Seville, receives a deeper and truer impression of Spain than would otherwise be possible. The visit to and study in the different archives give an opportunity to come into contact with the laughing gaiety of sunlit Andalusia, the stern austerity of the gloomy plains of Castile, and the polite urbanity of the capital Madrid, which lies in New Castile, the land of Don Quixote. This experience serves but to create a deeper appreciation and wider understanding of the diversity of character of the Spaniards who participated in the colonial exploits and laid the foundations of the American Republics.

“HOW’S THE CLIMATE?”

By WILLIAM A. REID

Foreign Trade Adviser, Pan American Union

EVERY prospective traveler asks in substance this practical question before starting forth to visit the growing nations of Latin America. Timely indeed is the query; so a glance at the elements—the climate makers—may be of service despite the inadequacy of a layman’s briefly told story. Climate, says the scientist, is composed of two main elements: temperature and moisture. Distance from the equator, proximity to vast bodies of water, winds, ocean currents, altitudes, Brazilian monsoons, Mexican monsoons, are powerful factors bearing on weather conditions.

The equatorial belt, as everyone knows, is hot because it receives the vertical rays of the sun. Theoretically, the farther we go north or south of the equator the cooler the climate; actually, there are so many different factors wielding their influence on temperature and moisture that this condition is only partly true.

Let us first glance at prevailing winds. In the records of Columbus we find that “the winds blew strong from the northeast and bore us over toward the west.” Evidently, the little caravels moved onward by the force of a steady and continuous breeze. The northeast and the southeast trades still blow toward the South American continent; these winds, modified by various causes, move westward over northern South America and eastward over southern South America—an interesting reversal of direction. Winds, of course, are transporters of clouds, and clouds passing over ocean areas are burdened with moisture and rain; if the winds pass over deserts we often find them hot and dry. In the eastern Amazon basin, for instance, clouds from the Atlantic bring daily rains; on the coast of northern Chile rain rarely falls although the winds are from the east, for they have deposited all their moisture in crossing 2,000 miles of country. Hence the dry nitrate region of Chile.

Another factor is the constantly heated and ascending air over the torrid zone which must be replaced by air from cooler regions; this breeze in the tropics is a delight to native and stranger alike. “But the trades, counter trades and polar winds,” said Commodore Maury, “though separate, are really parts of the same great atmospheric current which is ceaselessly accomplishing its unending circuit from the equator to the poles and from the poles back to the equator.”

Great ocean currents that wash South American shores are also important factors in climate making. Note briefly these currents. Moving eastward, the Atlantic equatorial current breaks along the eastern extremity of Brazil about Cape San Roque. Part of this current changes its course to northwestward; another part moves down the Brazilian coast to the region of Uruguay, where it turns eastward. Look at Cape Horn and its multitude of islands. From little-known Antarctic wastes a powerful current continually pounds this southern archipelago; it divides, one section moving northward along the Argentine coast for several hundred miles, until it meets the southward flowing Brazilian current. Another section of the Antarctic current moves from Cape Horn up the coast of Chile and Peru, bearing with it not only cool water but chilly breezes. Off Peru and Ecuador the Humboldt current, as it is called, turns westward, but not before coming into contact with the great Alaskan current that makes California and Mexican beaches disagreeably cool for summer bathers.

Past the northern coast of South America the ocean current moves northwestward until the Gulf of Mexico "pockets" its force and then sends out the famous Gulf Stream, whose effect, as everybody knows, is felt thousands of miles away in the British Isles.

Above the equatorial land region extending 3,000 miles across South America is a "cloud belt," a marvel of nature. The clouds, bearing heavy rains for the regions that happen to lie under them, travel northward and southward with the movement of the sun.



THE PALM-FRINGED BEACH AT TELA, HONDURAS.

This scene is typical of much of the Caribbean coast of Central America where the tropical heat of the lowlands is tempered by trade winds.



Photograph by Wm. V. Alford.

SAND DUNES IN THE PERUVIAN DESERT.

These sand formations, frequently of great dimensions, are seen along the arid coast and in the desert between Mollendo and Arequipa. Winds, generally from the northwest, which form the dunes, also cause their slow but steady movement across the plains.

Shortly after the beginning of the year, they are over northern Brazil and Ecuador and rains are flooding rivers and streams. By April and May, parts of Colombia and Venezuela are experiencing their rainy season; about mid-summer these clouds are over Panama; by September or October they have moved northward over the southern part of Mexico. Then this cloud belt takes up its southern movement and a second period of rain occurs in some of the regions thus traversed. So many local influences, however, are at work and countries are so vast that while the theory of the cloud belt holds true in general, yet there is absence of rain in certain sections, for example, in northeastern Brazil and in the Santa Marta region of Colombia.

Mountains constitute another important agency in climate making. For instance, the hills of Cuba and the mountains dominated by the peak of Orizaba in Mexico lie in about the same latitude. Yet tropical vegetation flourishes in the Pearl of the Antilles, while Orizaba is continually crowned with snow. The scientist assigns two causes for this condition: the area on high mountains is comparatively small and radiation is rapid; air and vapor on mountains are rarefied and this hastens radiation.

VAGARIES

The vagaries of the elements as observed here and there in Latin America are extremely interesting. On one occasion in Guayaquil the writer experienced a tropical downpour that lasted several hours. There seemed to have been a cloudburst. Streets and sewers were flooded and the ubiquitous small boy was delighted to find new wading and swimming pools.

A few days later and not 200 miles southward the Peruvian port of Paita was visited. Paita rarely sees rain. On this particular occasion a shower, the first one in 12 years, was falling. Scores of children were outside their homes shouting amazement and delight; they were catching in tin cups the "water that was coming down from the sky." Not only were children pleased but older people were surprised at the novelty of a shower.

Baquedano stands in the Chilean nitrate region; it is a small settlement and railroad junction of the Chilean Longitudinal and the Antofagasta and La Paz Railroads. In every direction one looks upon sand or barren earth and rocks; the sun shines every day, and earth and people must bear its scorching rays. One of the curious sights is that of brick houses for the railroad workers, although no clay is to be found anywhere in the region. Hereon hangs a story related to the writer by the superintendent of the Chilean Longitudinal Railway. Said he: "A few years ago a terrific rain storm occurred high up in the Andes. A day later a flowing river bore down on Baquedano, a phenomenon that probably never before happened. For hours the sand about the village was under water but the porous soil finally absorbed it, leaving a sediment of red clay several feet thick extending over acres of sand. Here was a building opportunity. Superintendent and citizens hurriedly prepared to make brick and build one-story houses. From a distant point on the railroad a "stay" material was obtained and for weeks brickmaking, an unheard-of occupation in the sandy desert, was active. The result is the score or more brick houses that stand today in the sun-parched village of Baquedano."

Far to the southward in the Straits of Magellan we find weather conditions somewhat queer. On the whole, there are about 260 cloudy or rainy days during an average year; one finds that sunshine, clouds, squalls, rain, hail, snow, rainbows often alternate during a single day. The months of December and January are rather warm, with an average temperature of about 53° F. July, a mid-winter month, has a mean temperature of around 34° F. Outside of the straits the ocean is at its worst during the winter and stormy seas are to be expected. Yet at times a vessel may enter the Straits of Magellan on the bosom of a comparatively calm sea. A recent steamer bearing tourists from the United States found the waters of Magellan quite calm.

THE RAINY SEASON

Many prospective travelers express fear of visiting a foreign country during the rainy season. So much has been written about tropical storms and tempestuous downpours that the stranger may be justified in endeavoring to avoid rainy weather or stormy periods. But the season of rains in one or another Latin American country may be quite pleasant. The month of April in the United States is known as the month of showers. All of us are aware, however, that many



MOUNT TRONADOR, CHILE.

From the warmer coastal region of the north to the perpetually snow-clad Andean heights, Chile has a wide climatic range.

sunshiny days are enjoyed in this month. Likewise, in Latin America a so-called rainy period may and often does have many hours or days of sunshine and pleasant temperatures.

In Panama the rainy season extends from May to November but on numerous visits during this period the writer enjoyed much sunshine; true, showers come with little warning and are often heavy downpours. An hour later the rain is over and the sun shines brightly. But Panama clouds may be tricky. The rainfall of 140 inches a year on the Caribbean side of the Republic is more than double that on the Pacific side, another feature of trade wind phenomena. Here, as in many other parts of the Tropics, the early riser often enjoys beautiful mornings when the thermometer may stand around 75° or 80° F. Humidity at times is oppressive.



CARACAS, VENEZUELA.

In contrast to the coastal region, the Venezuelan capital, because of its location at an altitude of 3,420 feet in the eastern spur of the Andes, enjoys a mild temperature.

When one leaves a well-known hotel in Habana he notes that some attendant has placed a sticker on his baggage. It bears the simple mark 77°. Upon inquiry the hotel man says that figure represents the mean temperature of the city. In Santiago, 500 miles across the island, no such label finds its way to the traveler's baggage. The temperature is sometimes too high to advertise; but let it be said that Santiago has cool breezes from the sea in the afternoon and evening, and the early mornings are delightful.

Consider the rainy months in Central America. They are different, of course, in highlands and lowlands but in the capital cities showers and sunshine alternate. The former drive children, nurses, and the people generally from the parks. An hour or so later the parks are again alive with people, a band concert may be in progress and for the time the rainy season seemingly is forgotten.

On a banana plantation, on the other hand, rain and high temperature are unpleasant and the stranger suffers. Producers of this fruit naturally select the low and humid regions; and where rains are not sufficient irrigation is provided. The Santa Marta region of Colombia is an illustration of a rather dry area within a region of frequent rains.

The question of where one proposes to go has much to do with deciding whether or not to avoid the rainy season. Of course, on a trip covering most of South America one cannot expect to find the

best weather in every country—the continental area is too vast. If one wishes to visit eastern South America June is a good time to leave the United States; after a week or two in Brazil he will reach Argentina and Uruguay in their early spring. On the west coast of South America it is usually pleasantest in our winter months, say from December to April. But if a friend in Lima should plan a party for one six months ahead of arrival, the day will certainly not be rainy. Lima enjoys abundant sunshine; but fogs often prevail between June and November along the entire Peruvian coast.

AVENIDA DE MAYO,
BUENOS AIRES.

The Argentine capital at sea level boasts a climate without great extremes of temperature which is comparable to that of California north of Los Angeles.



The Caribbean countries and Central America are now visited at any period of the year and one should expect heat and sunshine in the port cities. Ascend to higher levels of 3,000 to 5,000 feet and towns and cities have a delightful temperature even in the season of rains. In some of the port cities quick rail or motor service is available for going to cooler altitudes. From Port-au-Prince, Haiti, we motor to the highland towns of Pétionville or Furcy where a 5,000 foot altitude is pleasant. From Limón or Puntarenas in Costa Rica, that is, from either ocean, one takes a train to the delightful climate of

San José, the capital. Panamanians drive over a new highway to David and the mountains beyond and enjoy respite from the temperature of the isthmus. From most tropical cities there are cooler regions not far away.

“MANUFACTURED CLIMATE”

The manufacturers of both heating and cooling equipment are finding a steadily increasing demand all over Latin America for their products. In some of the cities where summer temperature is often unpleasant leading hotels and theaters have already been equipped with air cooling systems. Large numbers of private families are likewise installing modern cooling devices, while mechanical refrigeration for the preservation of foods and fruits is in extensive use. On the railroads of Argentina and Uruguay, not to mention others, many freight cars are artificially cooled for perishable products.

In regions where weather conditions are too cool for comfort in certain seasons we find electrical and other heating appliances in use and sale statistics show gradual expansion. In such cities as La Paz, Quito, Cuzco, Bogotá, and Mexico City many a family is now made more comfortable by means of the imported electric heater. Hotels that are finding a growing business in tourist travel are also utilizing modern cooling and heating systems, as the case requires. Thus, citizen and stranger alike in cities and larger towns of Latin America are enjoying more agreeable temperatures than ever before.

So, in starting on a journey that is to take one to a number of countries it is well to bear in mind the numerous factors in making climate pleasant or unpleasant. Where only one or two countries are included in the itinerary the question is simplified, unless the course is through a huge part of the world like Brazil. But travelers bent on business or pleasure often wish to see something of most of the Latin American countries on a single trip. On the other hand, a Caribbean voyage or a Mexican-Central American journey takes one over smaller areas than if visiting South America. In any case, the traveler will be interested in giving thought to clouds, ocean currents, trade winds, and mountains, not to mention lesser factors. All of these contribute liberally to climate making.

The following details, although brief, may be of assistance to those planning to visit some or all of the Latin American countries:

ARGENTINA: The northern part of the Republic lies in the tropical and sub-tropical zone with dry and rainy seasons peculiar to this region; the southern part of the country is within the Antarctic zone with its peculiar climatic conditions. Between these two extremes lies the central region, which is the most thickly populated.

In the region of Buenos Aires June, July and August are the coldest months when considerable rain may fall; the average temperature is about 53° F. De-

ember, January and February are summer months, with an average temperature of 77° F.; March, April and May have a mean temperature of 62° F.; September, October and November are spring months, the average temperature being 63° F. The climatic conditions of central Argentina may be compared to those in the portion of California lying between San Francisco and Los Angeles.

BOLIVIA: This country also is within the tropics and the traveler must be prepared for marked changes of temperature. Most of the people live in the highlands; in the region of La Paz the mean annual temperature is about 50° F. The sun of midday is often hot and the temperature may be about 80° F.; with the coming of darkness the air cools quickly, coats prove a requisite, and the temperature is 35° F. or lower. In this region there are two distinct seasons: the rainy period, lasting from December to March, and the dry months extending over the remainder of the year. During the season of rains, however, there are many days when the sun shines brightly for a few hours. At times lightning and thunder accompany heavy rains. Around Cochabamba, Tarija, and Santa Cruz, all lying in eastern Bolivia, the temperature is much higher.

BRAZIL: Every traveler to Brazil naturally wishes to visit the capital, Rio de Janeiro. This city, famous for its beautiful bay, is about as far south of the equator as Habana is north. The dry season begins in May and lasts until November, while the rainy season extends over the remaining months of the year. The months of heaviest rainfall are November and April, when the average is about 44 inches. The mean annual temperature is about 75° F. February is usually the hottest and July the coolest month of the year. Although the heat of Rio de Janeiro is at times excessive, delightful sea breezes often prevail and bring lower temperatures. Since the destruction of many of the forests in the region of Rio de Janeiro climatic conditions have been somewhat irregular. In the region of Pernambuco the rainy months are from April to June, while the vicinity of the mouth of the Amazon is subject to showers daily. About São Paulo the maximum summer heat is given at 93° F. and the winter maximum at 43° F.

CHILE: Because of its geographical position and by reason of peculiar topographical characteristics Chile enjoys almost every known climate. Temperature varies according to altitude, latitude, proximity to sea or to the high Andes. In the extreme northern part of the country, heat is moderated by the breezes from the Humboldt current, which moves northward along the coast. Winters in Tierra del Fuego are less severe than in the temperate zone of the United States. Chile may be divided into three climatic belts: those of the coast, the valley or central region, and the Andean or mountain region. Spring lasts from September to December; summer from December to March; autumn from March to June; winter from June to September. The mean temperature in Santiago ranges from 45° to 65° F.; the rainfall thereabout is 20 inches. In the Straits of Magellan the mean temperature in January is about 53° F. and in July 34° F.

COLOMBIA: Along the coast the climate is tropical but in elevated regions of the interior it is temperate and healthful. At Bogotá, where the altitude is more than 8,500 feet, the temperature ranges from 45° to 50° F. Rainfall is sufficient to mature crops of coffee and of wheat and other grains. In the plateau region and highland cities frequent rains come between March and November; the remaining months are known as the dry season. The heat of the coastal cities on both oceans is tempered by the cooling breezes; the average rainfall is about 44 inches but rains vary and at times there are periods of drought. Usually, the spring equinox brings two or more weeks of rain. Mean temperature is about 86° F.

COSTA RICA: The climate in higher altitudes is delightful. The hot lands are those forming the low region extending from seashore to interior mountains about 3,000 feet above sea level. In this region the mean annual temperature varies from 72° to 82° F., the heat being greatest on the Pacific side of the country. The temperate lands are those having an altitude of more than 3,000 feet. The difference between day and night temperature is keenly felt. The ground is sometimes covered with frost but snow rarely falls. The mean annual temperature in the temperate region varies from 57° to 68° F. The rainy season is from May to November on the Pacific side; on the Atlantic side, as a rule, the reverse is the order. The coolest month is January; December and February are relatively cool; the hottest months are May and June.

CUBA: An outstanding feature of Cuban temperature is its uniformity. The dry season is from December to April and the wet period from May to November. Over a period of 30 years precipitation during rainy months has ranged from 22 to 49 inches in the region of Habana. During the dry months 8 to 33 inches is recorded. The heaviest rains come in September and October. The mean annual temperature at Habana is 77° F. Santiago, almost surrounded by hills, is considerably warmer than Habana. The humidity in the lowlands is remarkably uniform, averaging about 74° in the western provinces; it is less pronounced in the mountainous districts. One of the delights of Cuba is the regularity of breezes from the ocean, which are especially perceptible in the late afternoon and evening.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC: This Republic, occupying about two-thirds of one of the Greater Antilles, has a mean annual temperature of about 79° F. in the coastal cities. In the interior temperature varies with the altitude. In the valley of Constanza, about the middle of the island, the elevation is 3,500 feet and ice sometimes forms. In the southern part of the country, there is a marked distinction between the dry and rainy season, the former extending from September to March while the latter begins in April and ends in August. In the northern part of the Republic rains are frequent at all seasons. Rain-fall in different sections varies from 15 to 200 inches per annum.

ECUADOR: There are three geographical divisions: The western lowland extending from the sea to the Andes; the Andean highlands between lofty mountains; and the region east of the Andes sloping to the waters of the Amazon. The climate of both western and eastern lowlands is tropical; the temperature of the interior highlands is somewhat like spring or autumn in the northern United States; nights are cold and frost is frequent. Quito, at 9,500 feet, has a delightful climate. It is not summer, spring, or autumn, but each day of the year offers a singular combination of the three seasons. The rainy season begins with December and ends with May, while the dry period extends from June to November. Along the coast breezes come from the south during summer and from the north during winter. In Guayaquil the mean temperature is about 81° F.; the range of the thermometer in the shade is from 65° to 90° F. The climate is best from May to December, as there is little rain and the nights are usually pleasant.

EL SALVADOR: The lowlands are generally hot, while high tablelands and slopes of mountains are comparatively cool and healthful. There are two seasons, the wet and the dry; the former commences in May and continues until October; the dry season lasts from November to April. Heaviest rains fall in July and August, when strong winds precede rains. The climate of El Salvador is generally healthful.

GUATEMALA: The highland regions of the country enjoy a temperature corresponding to spring in the southern part of the United States, the average temperature being about 72° F. The heat of the low coastal lands is often cooled for some hours daily by trade winds. There are two seasons, the rainy period lasting from May to October, the remainder of the year being included in the dry season. The coldest months in the highlands are December and January, while March and April are known as the hottest months. The capital city and other places situated 5,000 or more feet above sea level, such as Quetzaltenango and San Marcos, are cool but healthful.

HAITI: Port-au-Prince, the capital, is partly surrounded by mountains which prevent the city from receiving full benefit from the trade winds. From April to October the mercury indicates a temperature from 84° to 95° F. The nights average from 10° to 20° lower temperature than during the day. The remaining months, from October to April, known as the dry season, have an average temperature of 10° cooler than the wet season. A motor drive of six miles up the mountain from Port-au-Prince takes one to a beautiful region at La Goupe or Pétienville, where at an altitude of 1,400 feet the temperature is delightful. Cap Haitien, on the northern coast, has a cooler climate on account of ocean breezes. In Haiti, as in other parts of the West Indies, tropical downpours are typical of the rainy season.

HONDURAS: Average temperature in the highlands is about 74° F. The heat of the Pacific coast lands is not so oppressive as that of the lowlands on the Atlantic side. From May to October the northeast trades are intermittent and there is less moisture precipitated; the eastern region then has its nearest approach to a dry season. During these same months the Pacific coast is subject to winds from the west and southwest and considerable rain falls. The coolest month in the highlands is December when the temperature stands around 56° F. The hottest month is May, when temperature ranges between 75° and 90° F. In the interior the rainy season begins in May and continues until the middle of November.

MEXICO: There are three distinct regions: the lowlands of both the Atlantic and Pacific coasts; the temperate zone lying between 3,000 and 6,500 feet; the cold zone extending from 6,500 feet to the snowline of 12,500 feet. Temperature in the lowlands, depending on seasons, ranges between 80° and 100° F. but this heat is often tempered by trade winds on the Caribbean coast and monsoons on the Pacific coast. Mexico City, at an elevation of slightly more than 7,000 feet, has an average temperature of 54° F. in December and January and about 64° F. in April, May and June. In this highland region rainfall averages 23 inches annually, more than two-thirds of which falls between June and October; after November and until about April average rainfall is less than 1 inch per month in this part of the country. At Progreso the highest mean average rainfall is in August, when about 3 inches are recorded. In the lowlands of Vera Cruz January is the driest month, with less than 1 inch of rain; in July 14 inches fall. Guadalajara, famous for its climate, has "June weather with October touches."

NICARAGUA: The climate generally is healthful. Even in the hottest region of the Caribbean coast the heat is tempered by trade winds. This coast is more humid than that on the Pacific side. There are two seasons, well defined on the Pacific but less pronounced on the Caribbean coast. In the latter lowlands the rainy season extends from June to December; on the Pacific slope rains commence about the middle of May and last until late in November. March and April are the hottest months, although the thermometer seldom rises above 85° F. or falls below 75° F. For strangers in Nicaragua the period from January to April, inclusive, is regarded as the most healthful part of the year.

PANAMA: The Panama Canal passes approximately through the center of the Republic. Panama and Colón, being at ocean level, usually have breezes from the sea. The summer, or dry season, begins in January and extends to April while the winter, or rainy period, is that from May to November. November is the month of heaviest rainfall but during the rainy season the mornings are almost always bright; after midday clouds may gather and showers are often heavy for an hour or two, but later the sun may again shine brightly. During the dry season temperature stands around 80° F., at times reaching 90° F. On the Atlantic side of the Isthmus the average rainfall is 140 inches a year; on the Pacific side, 60 inches; in the interior mountain districts, about 93 inches. In December, January, February and March the heat may be excessive on the Atlantic, although tempered by ocean breezes. In the region of David the temperature ranges between 52° and 70° F.

PARAGUAY: The climate is salubrious. Rain is abundant during the entire year and in consequence vegetation is luxurious. In the region of Asunción the summer months, extending from October to March, have a temperature ranging from 69° to 81° F. For about 100 days in summer heat may be excessive, although when the wind is from the south it brings cooling breezes; wind from the north is warm. Winter extends from April to September. June is the coolest month, having a mean temperature of about 55° F. Cyclones and tornadoes are unknown; generally the air all over Paraguay is pure and bracing, particularly in the winter months.

PERU: Along the entire 1,500-mile coastal region of Peru, in which the cities of Callao and Lima are situated, there are two well defined seasons, summer and winter. Summer extends from December to May and winter from June to November. Summer temperatures range from 72° to 82° F. while in winter the average is about 69° F. In the region of Lima the mercury sometimes falls to 40° F. in July and rises to 90° F. in January. In the Andean highlands, where many people live and various mining enterprises are active, the climate is cool in the day and often cold at night. Mountain peaks are always covered with snow. Eastern lowlands are hot and rainfall is frequently excessive. Pacific coast fogs often prevail in winter months.

URUGUAY: This country of rolling hills, situated in sub-tropical South America, has a delightful climate. Sea breezes from the Atlantic temper the heat, which may reach 95° F. during summer months; winters are mild and snow and ice unknown, the mean temperature being about 62° F. Frosts frequently occur during June and July. The heaviest rains come during May and October but there is an abundance of rain at all seasons, the average being about 37 inches per year. The best hotels and some of the finer residences in Montevideo are supplied with heating facilities, which are sometimes needed in the winter months when cold winds blow inland from the Atlantic. In the hinterland the winter temperature averages about 55° F.

VENEZUELA: The country is divided into three zones, varying in temperature according to the height above sea level. The hot lands lie along the coast, in the Gulf of Maracaibo, and in the Orinoco Valley. Temperate lands are inland and at higher altitudes; the cold lands lie in the mountains which extend eastward and westward across the Republic. At Caracas, at 3,420 feet altitude, the temperature is about 68° F.; in Mérida, 5,384 feet above sea level, 67° F. Temperatures above 90° are recorded in all months in lower areas. At Maracaibo the heat reaches 100° F. at times. Rain along the coast ranges from 10 to 20 inches a year; in Caracas about 32 inches falls. The dry season in Caracas extends from January to March.

THE EVOLUTION OF CHILEAN LABOR LEGISLATION

By ÓSCAR ÁLVAREZ ANDREWS¹

THE revolution by which Chile achieved her independence occurred when the medieval guild system inherited from the Middle Ages was falling into decay. For about two centuries, or from 1541 to 1750, labor legislation had been almost entirely in the hands of guilds and towns. The proceedings of the early municipal councils in Santiago and other cities in Chile are full of resolutions on the "outrageous" prices charged by tailors, blacksmiths, shoemakers, silversmiths, and merchants. At that time the towns controlled in detail the prices and quality of articles and the wages of skilled workers, as well as the conditions of labor, including weekly rest periods. There were no factories nor industries on a large scale. Regulation on the part of the city councils tended to protect the population from the artisans rather than to protect workers from exploitation.

The skilled workers, on their side, had a firm defense in their craft organizations. The guilds of the early years of the colony not only fixed wages but also the prices of articles and even the cost of production, for the guild took charge of supplying its members with raw materials, as in the guilds of grocers, fishermen, milkmen, bakers, carpenters, masons, painters, and so on.

Spain had regulated in various ordinances and Laws of the Indies only certain aspects of labor, such as that of the Indians, miners and workers in the gold washings. This legislation is praiseworthy not only because of its humanitarian principles but also for its wide scope. Its technical provisions and foresight are almost incredible for the time in which the regulations were issued, for there was as yet no labor problem in any European country. Nevertheless, the ordinances attacked the subject in a more fundamental and precise manner than is encountered in even some modern laws. In the *Novísima Recopilación* of 1805, the length of the working day, the cash payment of fair wages, the work of women and children, labor accident compensation, and Sunday rest were regulated.

¹ Translated from *La Semana Internacional*, Valparaiso, Chile, Sept. 21, 1935. This article is published as of special interest in connection with the American Regional Conference of the International Labor Office, which is to convene in Santiago, Chile, on Jan. 2, 1936. See p. 962.—EDITOR.

The year 1810 rolled around and with it an individualist and revolutionary fever. The principle of liberty of labor, industry and commerce replaced the guild organization of production. The first Chilean Government Junta proclaimed the liberty of slaves and the liberty of trade. Human labor received absolute freedom, and although there were in Chile no laws prohibiting guilds, little by little they lost their special rights and privileges. For instance, about 1842 there was a reaction against the grocers' guilds. A law was issued regulating the sale of articles of prime necessity by street vendors and markets, but to a certain extent the object was to protect the buyer rather than the seller.

Labor in general continued in some aspects to be governed by the Laws of the Indies and here and there by other regulations. In 1855 the Civil Code was passed, and for the first time there was legislation on the hire of domestics (articles 1987 and following), the manufacture of material goods (articles 1996 and following), and the hire of intangible services (articles 2006 and following). This, the first sketchy labor legislation, was impregnated with the individualistic spirit of the Napoleonic Code. Domestics included servants, cooks, wet nurses, and coachmen. The employer was the master, whose word was taken in any controversy and who could dismiss his servant if he were ill, incompetent, unfaithful or injured in an accident. The contract for the manufacture of material goods was the hire of labor. It included the labor of shoemakers, carpenters, plumbers, painters, and contractors and construction workers in general. Intangible services were those rendered by authors, journalists, private white-collar employees, tutors, actors, singers, etc. The exercise of trades which require a long apprenticeship was also brought under the code, as was the work of teamsters, carters, boatmen, and owners of transportation companies.

Besides these provisions, the Civil Code referred to labor in several separate places, such as article 1618, which declared that implements of labor could not be attached; article 2472, which made the wages of salespeople and servants preferred claims; articles 2521 and 2522, which stated that the fees of lawyers, physicians, teachers, and engineers were outlawed in three years and the wages of merchants, artisans, salespeople, servants, inn keepers, messengers, barbers, etc., in two years. Furthermore, by analogy, articles 2314 and following, relating to damages, were generally applied to labor accidents.

In 1865 the Commercial Code was promulgated. As far as labor was concerned, it represented an enormous step forward beyond the Civil Code. The provisions relative to persons connected with business, such as those selling on commission, agents, and salespeople in general, are as advanced as the modern laws on private employees. The reasons for the nullification of a labor contract under the present

laws are the same as those given in the Commercial Code (articles 333 and 334). This code furthermore regulated the labor contract of men in maritime employment. In its detailed provisions are discernible the modern subjects of international labor legislation, such as forms of wages or compensation, labor accidents, causes for the nullification of contract, length of the working day, work required, etc. The time in which suits for wages, etc., were outlawed was fixed in article 1314 and the order in which creditors should be preferred in articles 1520 and 1521.

In 1888 the Mining Code was issued, regulating the employment of miners in articles 90 and following. The employer who discharged a workman was required to give him at least 15 days notice; the labor contract had to be written; the employer had to pay a discharged worker's expenses of traveling to and from his home and the labor contract was rendered void by the mere fact of unpaid wages. [A miner leaving without due cause when on contract requiring notice was similarly required to pay the employer a sum equal to wages for a month, the time for which notice should have been given, or the days before his time after giving notice was up.]

About 1906 the housing law was passed. This began the fraternal period of labor legislation; the gravity of the social problem induced the State to intervene and oblige employers and other persons in the upper economic levels to take thought for workers. The Sunday rest law was passed in 1907; the law requiring chairs to be provided in commercial establishments in 1912; the act on the protection of destitute children and on child labor (no. 2675), in which for the first time action was taken on child labor and night work, also in 1912. About 1917 came the period of compromise between individualism and socialism. The typical law of this period was the labor accident act of 1917 (no. 3170). For the first time the theory of occupational risk was adopted. The employer or owner of machinery was made responsible for all accidents which it causes. This law, which created a great commotion, was considered communistic, and it is true that the foundation of the law was indeed frankly socialistic. It mentioned the necessity of defending human life and the race in general and awarded compensation in case of a worker's death to illegitimate children if there were no legitimate offspring. Protective devices for preventing accidents were required.

In 1918 there was enacted a law requiring every employer of women to install in his factory a day nursery where their children under a year old could be cared for. This also gave rise to a strong protest on the part of the employers. In the same year a decree on strikes was issued. It gave workmen the right to appoint a committee to represent them before the employer and the authorities.

In 1921 President Alessandri presented to Congress a bill for a complete labor code. At almost the same time the conservative senators offered a project for a general labor law. The former was based on a moderate State socialism with freedom for both employers and workers, and proposed the craft union as a type of labor organization. The second followed the trend of liberal French Catholicism with a leaning towards the side of the employers. As a type of labor organization it adopted the compulsory industrial union directed by the employer of each establishment. The discussion and eventual fusion of these very different projects was prolonged to 1924.

The military revolution surprised Congress while it was still considering these bills. Instead of passing a harmonious and complete labor code it enacted separate labor laws which had been only partially discussed:

Law no. 4053 on labor contracts;

Law no. 4054 on compulsory sickness, disability and old age insurance;

Law no. 4055 on labor accidents;

Law no. 4056 on conciliation and arbitration;

Law no. 4057 on labor unions;

Law no. 4058 on cooperatives;

Law no. 4059 on private employees.

These are all dated September 8, 1924. Aside from law no. 4054, based on a bill of Dr. González Cortés, and law no. 4059, based on a project presented by radical and Democratic senators, all the other laws were in general taken from President Alessandri's project, slightly modified.

The years 1924 and 1925 marked the peak of labor legislation in Chile. The basis of the laws passed and those in force was, as has been said, a frank State socialism. At the end of 1924 decree-law no. 24 on night work in bakeries was enacted and in the following February decree-law no. 261 on rents. The former established in Chile a record for State intervention in industry to protect the worker, and the second a record of State intervention in the normal life of society to protect the health of the population by means of proper housing. At the end of 1924 the Ministry of Labor had been created, using as a nucleus the labor inspection and workmen's housing bureaus.

Let us give a rapid summary of the laws above mentioned, which are to all practical purposes still in effect.

Law no. 4053 established the obligation of every employer to give his workers a written labor contract; it prescribed the basic provisions of individual labor contracts (which must contain the names and addresses of employers and workers, wages, kind of work, date, etc.); fixed the length of the working day at 8 hours; prohibited the labor of children under 14 and regulated that of minors under 18 and of

women, forbidding their employment in certain industries; laid down rules for labor inspection and the basis for fixing a minimum wage; prohibited payment of wages in merchandise or by scrip; required the employer to give 6 days notice before discharging a worker; stated the reasons for the nullification of a contract; regulated collective labor contracts and their results, especially their binding nature, once they had been signed, for all employers and workers in the industry concerned.

Law no. 4054 set up compulsory insurance against illness, disability and old age. The worker contributed 2 percent of his wages, the employer 3 percent and the Government 1 percent. The law gave the worker medical and hospital attention and medicines, money compensation during illness, funeral expenses in the case of death, and a life pension in case of disability or old age. The insurance was made compulsory for every working man or woman earning less than 8,000 pesos a year.

Law no. 4055 was a slight modification of the labor accident law of 1917. It required employers to pay compensation for accidents suffered by employees at work; it extended the categories of persons eligible for benefits, simplified the procedure and carried to its logical conclusion the doctrine of occupational risk.

Law no. 4056 established a system of compulsory conciliation and optional arbitration. In general, strikes were not permitted unless the resources of conciliation had been exhausted. Regulations were laid down for the presentation of petitions and the responsibility of the strikers' representatives. Boards of conciliation and arbitration composed of representatives of employers and workers were created; in basic industries the formation of special boards was authorized.

Law no. 4057 created two types of labor unions: industrial, which admitted all workers over 18 in all trades employed in one establishment, provided the number was greater than 25, and extended only to members the benefits of the law; and craft unions, which embraced workers exercising the same trade. Employers in the same trade were allowed to form unions, and employer-employee organizations of persons engaged in one trade were also permitted, as well as federations of unions. Both were empowered to make collective bargains, but only the industrial union could represent the workers in profit-sharing arrangements. [The law now says that no industrial union can be organized with less than 55 percent of the workers in the plant, but that as soon as the union has been recognized by law, it is considered to represent all the employees in collective bargaining.]

Law no. 4058 regulated consumers' cooperatives; it prescribed that no member should hold more than 10 per cent of the shares.

Law no. 4059 treated the work of private employees. It established the obligation of the employer to give the employee a written

contract; otherwise the latter's word would be taken on anything concerning the conditions of labor. It also provided for a month's notice before discharge, a month's pay to a discharged worker for every year of service and a share in the profits for employees. The other provisions of the law have been considerably amended, as we shall see later.

The characteristic of labor legislation in the years between 1925 and 1931 was a rapid adaptation of the general principles of labor legislation to Chilean conditions.

Some acts were amended by decree-laws, as for instance law no. 4055 on accidents, to which decree-law no. 379 added occupational diseases; law no. 4058 on cooperatives, amended by decree-law no. 700; law no. 4059 on private employees, amended by decree-law no. 857.

Other laws were modified through regulations. This happened with law no. 4053 on labor contracts and law no. 4054 on compulsory insurance. Others were changed by explanatory decrees; this occurred with law no. 4057 on trade unions, which would simply have remained on paper without the decree that prescribed the procedure for organizing them and another decree that created certain rights for their officers [e. g., the right not to be discharged during tenure of office and six months afterwards except upon recommendation of the judge of a labor court].

In the field of general social legislation more definite laws, such as no. 308 of 1925, were passed. This law gave a great impulse to housing.

The year 1931 marked the beginning of the definite consolidation of labor legislation. All the fears and threats that the laws would be amended or repealed were set at rest with the appearance of decree with force of law no. 178 of December 1931, which not only united in a single body all existing laws, giving them the form of a code—or rather, renewed the 1921 code with amendments—but also introduced new subjects, such as agricultural and domestic labor. The procedure of the labor courts was also radically changed and courts created consisting of only one judge, after the Italian fashion, leaving to the jurisdiction of the conciliation board collective conflicts only. Although the one-judge labor courts had existed by virtue of decree no. 2100 since 1927, the year in which they were created in place of the housing and conciliation tribunals, they did not have definite organization until the decree with force of law above mentioned. From 1931 until the present there have been no important changes in the labor laws. They have, however, been supplemented by regulations, decrees or explanatory laws, such as law no. 5404 of January 1934, on the classification of manual and white-collar workers, pay for over-time work, etc. The 1932 decree-law on subsistence is

without doubt the most advanced legislation passed in Chile to protect workers from the rising cost of living.

In fact, labor laws have contributed to defining many concepts and filling many gaps in legislation.

It may be said that today Chile has one of the most complete bodies of labor laws in America and that it is among the best in the world. There is no wage earning group which is unprotected, and although it may be argued that many of the laws in effect were based on European legislation and passed before Chile was prepared for them, it is nevertheless true that today these laws are well adapted to our country and to our ways and form a collection of juridical standards and social-economic institutions that no employers' or workers' organization can disregard or repeal.

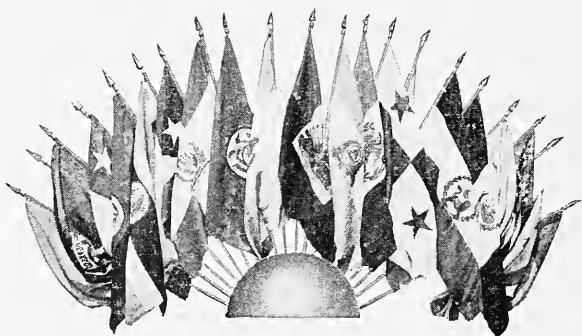
Curiously enough, representatives of the countries from which some of the ideas of this labor legislation were originally taken come to study the way in which we have applied them, for sometimes the results have been more beneficial in Chile than in the countries of origin.

In conclusion I may say that since 1934 there has been in Chile a Superior Labor Council, composed of representatives of employers and employees, which is charged with the study of reforms or the liberalization of the labor laws in effect and with the drafting of such future laws as events and necessities may suggest.



A GROUP OF LABOR INSPECTORS IN VALPARAÍSO.

A staff of inspectors aids in the enforcement of Chile's advanced legislation bearing on the relations between employer and worker.



PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

Election of officers.—The first meeting of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union for the year 1935-36 was held on November 6, 1935. The Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States, was reelected chairman of the Board for the ensuing year, and His Excellency Dr. Felipe A. Espil, Ambassador of Argentina in Washington, was elected vice chairman.

Committee reports approved.—Reports submitted by the Supervisory Committee, and the Committees on Codification of International Law, Powers of Attorney and Juridical Personality of Foreign Companies, and Bibliography were unanimously approved.

Resolution on the occasion of the death of Senhor Rinaldo de Lima e Silva.—His Excellency Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, Minister of Panama, presented the following resolution on the death of a former colleague, His Excellency Senhor Rinaldo de Lima e Silva, who represented Brazil on the Governing Board for three years after presenting his letters of credence at the White House in April 1931. The resolution, which was unanimously adopted, reads as follows:

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union has learned with deep sorrow of the death of His Excellency, Senhor R. de Lima e Silva, former Ambassador of Brazil in the United States and a former member of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, and

RESOLVES:

To spread upon the minutes of the meeting an expression of its sense of loss and also of the esteem with which the Governing Board remembers the services rendered by Senhor de Lima e Silva, and,

To authorize the Director General to transmit to the Government of Brazil and to the family of the deceased the expression of sympathy of the Governing Board.

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Conference documents.—As an outcome of two recent American conferences—the Seventh American Scientific Congress held in Mexico City in September and the Second General Assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History held in Washington in October—the Library has received various publications connected with them. The official documents of the scientific congress included programs, agenda, regulations, and the final act in Spanish.

The Institute of Geography and History sent many of its publications, embracing a review of the work of the preliminary assembly in Mexico City in 1929; the same for the inaugural assembly in Rio de Janeiro in 1932; studies on geography, geophysics, mapmaking, and antiquities; and the program for the 1935 assembly.

A catalogue of publications on the subject of geography in the Columbus Memorial Library was prepared for the information of the delegates to the Assembly. The entries are arranged under the country to which the text relates, with subdivisions of *Books* and *Periodicals*. Books and magazine articles relating to more than three countries have been grouped under the heading "General." An index of authors is appended to the compilation. The catalogue is known as "Bibliographic series, No. 13", and a few copies are available for distribution.

Bibliography in the Americas.—Owing to an increasing demand for some coordination of inter-American bibliography, Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union, authorized the following announcement at one of the sessions of the Assembly:

At the session of the Assembly of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History held Wednesday afternoon, October 16, in one of the papers presented it was suggested that it might be well to provide a center where the record will be made of the bibliographies on inter-American subjects that have already been completed; of the names of authors and titles of compilations being prepared; and of plans that are proposed for future projects.

Inasmuch as the resolution on American Bibliography adopted by the Seventh International Conference of American States at Montevideo states in article 16 that coordination and cooperation in the constructive work of inter-American bibliography shall be undertaken in the Library of the Pan American Union, it therefore gives me great pleasure to announce that such a center for recording inter-American bibliographic effort will be immediately established in the Library of the Pan American Union.

This record will be available to all persons interested in inter-American bibliography. It will be helpful in establishing it if persons who are interested in the subject will send to the Librarian information of projects in preparation or proposed.

The Ateneo Nacional de Ciencias y Artes de México has announced the meeting of the First Scientific Bibliographic Congress, to be held in Mexico City from the sixth to the tenth of April, 1936. This will

celebrate the four hundredth anniversary of the introduction of the first printing press in the Western Hemisphere, brought to Mexico in 1536. The Ateneo, with the aid of other Mexican scientific societies, intends to invite all the scientific and literary societies as well as the governments of the American continent to be represented in this congress. Committees have been named and a program prepared that includes topics on: History of printing in Mexico; bibliography of scientific and literary works; artistic printing; printing in the other countries of the continent; studies on social evolution in relation to printing; and an exhibition of samples of books and printing. Spanish will be the official language of the congress; all papers presented should be written in that language; any works presented in English, French, or Portuguese must be accompanied by a summary and conclusions in Spanish. Dr. Félix F. Palavicini has been named president of the organizing committee; Dr. Alfredo M. Saavedra and Lic. Guillermo Schultz, vice-presidents; Gen. Juan Manuel Torrea and Dr. Adrián Correa, secretaries; and Señor Miguel de la Torre, treasurer. The offices are established at the Ateneo, Bucareli 12, México, D. F., México.

The Library's bibliographic data was further augmented during the past month by a Mexican historical work and three brief essays by Manuel Pedro González, of Cuba. The former is the *Guía bibliográfica de la historia de México, época precortesiana* compiled by Antonio Acevedo Escobedo, and published by the periodical *El libro y el pueblo*. It is based on the bibliographic references in the history of Mexico of Luis Chávez Orozco and is divided into sections relating to the several pre-Cortesian civilizations of Mexico—that is, the Tarascan, the Maya-Quiché, the Mixtec-Zapotec, and the Nahuatl. Professor González's essays are entitled *Literatura y realidad cubanas* (a brief survey of the leading names in Cuban literature), *En torno a una bibliografía cubana* (a critical study of a publication by the Harvard Council on Hispano-American studies, *A bibliography of Cuban belles-lettres*, by J. D. M. Ford and M. I. Raphael), and *Fichero (Índice Hispano-americano)*, composed of brief reviews of 28 Latin American works.

Clearing house for theses.—Dr. Sturgis E. Leavitt of the University of North Carolina has just announced that the magazine *Hispania*, published at the University of California, will establish a clearing house for theses on Hispano-American literature and languages. The plan as outlined at present provides for the publication of the author, college, title, and date of doctors' and masters' theses with a statement whether the degree has been conferred or if the thesis has only been begun.

Latin American Libraries.—A second edition of the statistical compilation entitled *Latin American Libraries* has just been published by

the Pan American Union as Library and Bibliography Series, No. 7. The introduction states:

To enable students throughout this continent and in other countries to form some idea of the immense store of books in Latin America, the Pan American Union sent in 1927 a questionnaire to the principal libraries asking for figures indicative of the size of each library and the extent to which it was used. The results of this survey, the first ever attempted, were published in the *BULLETIN* of the Pan American Union for February, 1928. In 1933 a second survey was made, the results of which are tabulated below. There is much information yet to be obtained before even an approximately correct table can be compiled, but this is offered with the hope that it may be of service in pointing the way for broader or more detailed investigations. The compilation, which lists 286 libraries, shows that they contain a total of 6,466,754 books.

Bolivian books.—A recent Bolivian shipment of more than 40 pieces was received from Señor Ismael Sotomayor of La Paz. It included musical numbers, some government reports and regulations, four volumes of biography, a study on the Bolivian Indian, an interesting book by Señor Sotomayor on traditions and anecdotes about La Paz, and other literary works.

Acquisitions.—Of the other 230 books and pamphlets received since the last publication of these Notes, a few of the most interesting ones are listed below:

Guía para fichado y catalogación, conteniendo la tabla de materias del catálogo metódico y un índice de palabras-clave [por la] Biblioteca nacional. Buenos Aires, Imprenta de la Biblioteca nacional, 1935. 113, [3] p. 20½ cm.

Hacia el futuro indio [por] María Frontaura Argandoña. La Paz, Editorial América, 1932. 2 p. l., 100 p., 2 l. illus., pl. 17 cm. [A sociological study of the Bolivian Indian.]

Derecho administrativo, por José S. Quinteros. 2.^a edición. La Paz, Imp. Velarde, 1920. 2 p. l., ii p., 1 l., 347, iii p. 22½ cm. [A treatise on the government of Bolivia.]

Los generales de Bolivia (rasgos biográficos), 1825–1925 [por] Julio Díaz A. . . . Prólogo de Juan Francisco Bedregal . . . La Paz, Imp. Intendencia general de guerra, 1929. 2 p. l., [ii]–vii, 718, [3], iv. p. ports. 22 cm. [Biographical essays, with portraits of many of the generals.]

De siglo a siglo, hombres célebres de Bolivia [por la Dirección general de estadística y estudios geográficos]. La Paz, Bolivia, González y Medina, 1920. 2 p. l., xi, 541, [2] p. 18 cm. Contents.—La independencia y sus héroes.—Los presidentes de Bolivia.—Hombres célebres de Bolivia. [Biographies of men who were important during a century of Bolivian history.]

Añexorias paceñas; repertorio de tradiciones e otros romances de la ciudad de Ntra. Sra. de Pa. Laz. Las escribió Dn. Ismael Sotomayor pa. consulta de estudiosos e solaz de desocupados. Prologólas el Dtr. M. Rigoberto Paredes. La Paz, Ymprenta de Flores, Sn. Román e compa., 1930. 3 p. l., iv, [3]–448 p., 1 l., iv p. 28 cm. [This interesting volume interprets old La Paz to present-day readers. Señor Sotomayor gives historical, descriptive, and social sketches about his native city.]

Derrotero de la costa de Chile desde Arica al canal Chacao. Compilado y redactado conforme con las informaciones y documentos más recientes. Publicado por el Departamento de navegación . . . Valparaíso, Imprenta de la Armada, 1935.

v. I: 2 p. l., 370 p. maps (part fold.), diagrs. (part fold., 1 col.) 26½ cm. [With this volume is begun the complete revision of the five volumes which constitute the "Derrotero de la costa de Chile" (published from 1908 to 1918). This pilot, published by the Department of Navigation, is an invaluable help for all vessels sailing along Chile's lengthy coastline.]

Vida y escritos del doctor José Félix de Restrepo [por] Guillermo Hernández de Alba . . . Bogotá, Imprenta nacional, 1935. 1 p. l., iii p., 2 l., [7]-217 p. pl., port. 22 cm. [On the occasion of the one hundredth anniversary (September 23, 1932) of the death of this noted Colombian the Colombian government authorized the publication of the documents connected with his life and works. Sr. Hernández de Alba has compiled these documents, showing the great work of the "liberator of the slaves."]

Primer catálogo [de la] Biblioteca [de la] Academia de la historia de Cartagena, levantado por el bibliotecario, académico de número, Don Gabriel Jiménez M. [Cartagena?], 1935. 2 p. l., 57 p. 24 cm.

Literatura y realidad cubanas [y] En torno a una bibliografía cubana [por] Manuel Pedro González . . . Habana, Imp. Molina y cía., 1935. 19 p. 23½ cm. (Ediciones de la "Revista bimestre cubana", La Habana.)

Fichero (índice hispano-americano) [por] Manuel Pedro González . . . Habana, Imp. Molina y cía., 1935. 35 p. 23½ cm. (Ediciones de la "Revista bimestre cubana", La Habana.)

La iglesia ecuatoriana en el siglo XIX [por] Julio Tobar Donoso . . . Con una introducción por el Dr. Remigio Crespo Toral . . . Quito, "Editorial ecuatoriana", 1934. v. I: xx p., 1 l., 633 p. plates (ports.) 23 cm. (Publicaciones de la Academia ecuatoriana correspondiente de la española.) Contents: De 1809 á 1845. [Dr. Tobar Donoso begins with this volume a complete history of the Catholic church in Ecuador. The first section covers the time in Ecuadorean history when that country was a part of Gran Colombia (1809-30); the second, the period when General Flores was president.]

Las bellas artes en Guatemala, por Víctor Miguel Díaz . . . Guatemala [Tipografía nacional] 1934. 600 p. illus., ports. 27 cm. [This study was first printed in parts as a supplement to the "Diario de Centro América". The author gives a complete history of fine arts in Guatemala with many reproductions. Among the arts discussed are architecture, ornamental silver-work, painting, drawing, lithography, photography, caricature, engraving, numismatics, cartography, music, sculpture, heraldry, drama, and dancing. There are many interesting illustrations.]

Anotaciones criticodidácticas sobre el poema del himno nacional de Guatemala [por] José María Bonilla Ruano . . . Guatemala [Unión tipográfica] 1935. 2 p. l., 11-351 p. incl. plates (2 col.), port. plates (ports.) 24 cm. [An explanation in accordance with the changes in the words of the National Hymn of Guatemala, made July 26, 1934. The place of the national emblems and coat-of-arms in civic and political life is also reviewed. An appendix contains the text of almost all the national hymns of the world, with annotations and translations into Spanish.]

Isagoge histórica apologética de las Indias Occidentales y especial de la Provincia de San Vicente de Chiapa y Guatemala, de la Orden de Predicadores; manuscrito encontrado en el convento de Santo Domingo de Guatemala, debido a la pluma de un religioso de dicha orden, cuyo nombre se ignora; colección de documentos antiguos del Ayuntamiento de Guatemala. Prólogo de J. Fernando Juárez Muñoz. Guatemala [Tipografía nacional] 1935. 447 p. 26½ cm. (Biblioteca "Goathemala" de la Sociedad de geografía e historia. Volumen XIII.) [This is the first volume of this excellent historical series since July 1934. The first publication of the anonymous Dominican's history was in 1892, at the time of

the celebration of the fourth centenary of the discovery of America. The work is divided into two parts, the first being a philosophic study of the New World, in relation with its geographic situation and the probable origin of its peoples; it is entitled "Del origen y venida de los indios y de otras naciones a estas tierras, y de las noticias y controversias de los antiguos acerca de ellas, hasta su descubrimiento por el Almirante don Cristóbal Colón, y venida de la religión de N. P. Santo Domingo." The second part treats of the first years of the Conquest of Guatemala; it is entitled "En que se trata de las conquistas de este reino de Guatemala, fundación de la ciudad de Santiago de los Caballeros, venida de la religión de N. P. Santo Domingo a la Nueva España, y fundación del Convento de dicha ciudad hasta la muerte de su fundador el P. Fr. Domingo de Betanzos." The third section of the work is devoted to a collection of historic documents of the sixteenth century.]

Morelos, caudillo de la independencia mexicana, por Alfonso Teja Zabre. 1^a ed. Madrid, Espasa-Calpe, S. A., 1934. 266 p. front. (port). 19½ cm. (Vidas españolas e hispanoamericanas del siglo XIX. 43 p.) [Sr. Teja Zabre is known for his "Breve historia de México" listed in the BULLETIN for November 1934 and his "Guide to the history of Mexico" listed in the BULLETIN for October 1935. In this newest book he tells in an interesting manner the story of the Mexican priest who became one of the leaders of the independence movement. The work is also a fuller development of his brief biography of Morelos, of which two editions have been exhausted.]

Algunos papeles para la historia de las bellas artes en México; documentos de la Academia de bellas artes de San Fernando, de Madrid, relativos a la Academia de bellas artes de San Carlos, de México [por] Genaro Estrada. Mexico, 1935. 89 p. 24 cm. [The documents which Señor Estrada has collected and the historical summary which he presents as a background for the documents form a contribution to the history of fine arts in Mexico during the Spanish period. He records the achievements of the Academy during the last quarter of the eighteenth century, that is, the history especially of its founding and its first exhibition, of works of painting, sculpture and architecture, held in the Academy in Madrid in 1796.]

Guía bibliográfica de la historia de México, época precortesiana . . . México, Ediciones de "El libro y el pueblo", 1935. v. 1: 74 p., 2 l. 23 cm. (Publicación de la Secretaría de educación pública, Departamento de bibliotecas.)

Biografía del General Don Pedro Joaquín Chamorro, 1818-1890 [por] Esteban Escobar. Managua, Tipografía "La Prensa", 1935. 1 p. l., ii, 398 p. pl. (port.) 22½ cm. [General Chamorro throughout his life looked to the betterment of Nicaragua, his native country; many improvements were obtained during his term in the Presidency. In his long biography Señor Escobar shows the value and the results of Chamorro's work.]

La visita del Doctor Leo S. Rowe a Venezuela; publicación dispuesta por la Sección venezolana de la Sociedad panamericana. Caracas, Lit. y tip. del comercio, 1935. 44 p. incl. plates. 27½ cm. [Feeling that the significance of the visit to Venezuela of Dr. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union, in the first part of 1935 was the strengthening of Pan Americanism, the Venezuelan section of the Pan American Society compiled this book containing addresses made by Dr. Rowe and others during his stay in Venezuela, as well as extracts from newspapers.]

Bolívar y las Antillas hispanas, por Emeterio S. Santovenia. . . . Madrid, Espasa-Calpe, S. A., 1935. 276 p. pl. (port.) 19½ cm. [A new biography of Bolívar showing his interest in the West Indies, written by an eminent Cuban, author of numerous historical works including another on Bolívar, entitled "Bolívar y Martí" (Habana, 1934), listed in the BULLETIN of May, 1934.]

Latin American libraries. Bibliotecas de la América Latina. Bibliothecas da America Latina. [Compiled by Charles E. Babcock, Librarian of the Pan American Union] Washington, Pan American Union, Unión Panamericana, União Panamericana, 1935. Cover-title, 22 p. 23 cm. ([Pan American Union] Library and bibliography series, No. 7.)

New magazines or those received for the first time are listed below:

Boletín del patronato de reclusas y liberadas. Buenos Aires, 1934. Año I, N° 3, mayo de 1934. 28 p. illus., ports. 27x18 cm. Irregular. Editor: Patronato de reclusas y liberadas. Address: Patronato de reclusas y liberadas, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

San Martín; revista del Instituto Sanmartiniano. Buenos Aires, 1935. Año I. N° 1, agosto de 1935. 48 p. illus., ports., maps, facsim. 33½x24 cm. Quarterly. Address: Arenales, 1677, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

El Altiplano; revista de agricultura y ganadería; órgano de la Sociedad agropecuaria. La Paz, 1935. Año I, N° 1, 16 de julio de 1935. 59 p. illus., ports. 26½x19 cm. Monthly. Address: Sociedad agropecuaria, La Paz, Bolivia.

Asociación de industriales mineros de Bolivia, Informaciones especiales para los socios. La Paz, 1935. Vol. VI, N° 1, agosto de 1935. 63 p. 3 tables (1 fold.) 24x17 cm. Address: Asociación de industriales mineros de Bolivia, Junín N° 2, Casilla N° 140, La Paz, Bolivia.

Boletín oficial de comunicaciones. La Paz, 1935. Año I, N° 2, mayo de 1935. 19 p. 27x19 cm. Monthly. Editor: Humberto Muñoz Cornejo. Address: Dirección general de correos y telégrafos, La Paz, Bolivia.

Ondas; magazine ilustrado, refleja toda la vida nacional. La Paz, 1935. Año I, N° 4-5, julio-agosto de 1935. [60] p. illus., ports. 27x18½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Lizardo G. Suárez B. Address: Casilla de correo N° 402, La Paz, Bolivia.

Superación; revista educacional. La Paz, 1933. Año I, N° 3, mayo 1933. [36] p. ports. 27x18 cm. Monthly. Editor: Ernesto Aliaga Suárez. Address: Ayacucho N° 134; Casilla 459, La Paz, Bolivia.

Revista dos criadores; mensario da Federação paulista dos criadores de bovinos. São Paulo, 1935. Anno VI, N° 11, julho de 1935. 32 p. illus., tab., diagrs. 26x18½ cm. Editors: Dr. A. Augusto Brandão, Dr. Virgílio Penna. Address: Rua Senador Feijó, 4-3° andar, São Paulo, Brasil.

Rodriguésia; revista do Instituto de biologia vegetal, Jardim botânico e Estação biológica do Itatiaya. Rio de Janeiro, 1935. Anno I, N° 1, inverno de 1935. 105 p. illus., plates. 23x16½ cm. Quarterly. Editors: P. Campos Porto, Fernando R. da Silveira, Leonam de A. Penna. Address: Comissão de redação de "Rodriguésia", Jardim botânico, Gavea, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil.

Cartagena; revista municipal. Cartagena, 1935. Año I, N° 8, agosto de 1935. 51 p. fold. tab. 30x22 cm. Monthly. Editor: Manuel Esteban Pomares. Address: Concejo municipal, Cartagena, Colombia.

Revista de medicina legal de Colombia; órgano de la Oficina central de medicina legal de Bogotá. Bogotá, 1935. Volúmen I, N° 1, agosto de 1935. 23 p. port. 24½x17 cm. Monthly. Address: Oficina central de medicina legal, Calle 10.ª, N° 563, Bogotá, Colombia.

Liberación; revista centroamericana de vanguardia. San José, 1935. Año I, N° 1, septiembre de 1935. 64 p. 25½x18 cm. Monthly. Editor: Vicente Sáenz. Address: Apartado postal 1575, San José, Costa Rica.

Humanidad; órgano oficial de la Cruz roja cubana. Habana, 1935. Año I, N° 1, septiembre 1935. 30 p. illus., ports. 31x24 cm. Monthly. Address: Zulueta entre Tte. Rey y Dragones, Habana, Cuba.

Revista de la guardia nacional; órgano mensual de la Dirección general del cuerpo. San Salvador, 1935. Año II, N° 14, julio de 1935. 23 p. fold. tab. 24½x18½ cm. Address: Guardia nacional, San Salvador, El Salvador, C. A.

PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

AGRICULTURAL COLONIZATION IN COLOMBIA

The Government of Colombia is establishing an agricultural colony on the northern Pacific coast of the Republic, in El Chocó Territory, at a place known as Solano Bay. Because of the possibilities for a fine sheltered harbor offered by the bay, the climate of the surrounding territory, the extensive area available for agricultural development in the vicinity, and the fact that it will be the terminus of short roads from the interior of the country to the Pacific coast, the Government has chosen this site as the most favorable for the establishment of a colony whose center will be the future seaport. The region open for colonization is bounded by the Valle River on the south, by the watershed of the Baudó cordillera to the source of the Nabugá River on the east, and by the Nabugá on the north.

The Government has set aside the necessary land for the development of the port, the erection of government buildings, and the establishment of various services, as well as a 2,000 hectare tract (approximately 5,000 acres) for its own use; the rest of the vast area is open to colonization by farmers. The port which will eventually grow up will be known as Ciudad Mutis, in honor of the Spanish botanist José Celestino Mutis, famous for his work in Colombia. The colony will be the headquarters of the Ministry of Education in the development of its rural education program for the Pacific coast from the Panama border to the town of Pizarro, about 80 miles south. The model schoolhouse, the social welfare center, and similar buildings will be located there. A commissariat will also be established where employees and settlers can buy at cost price. The plans provide, too, for an agricultural experiment station in the rural zone.

Prospective settlers must apply to the Ministry of Industries and Labor, which is in charge of the project; only men between the ages of 18 and 50 in good health and of good character, who have had experience in farming, will be accepted. Aliens must also fulfil the immigration requirements. Everyone accepted as a settler has the right to 75 hectares (approximately 185 acres) of farm land and a plot within the city limits of the port; he will also receive free lodging for himself and his family for 90 days at the colony dormitory, have work guaranteed during the first 10 months spent at the colony at a wage of one peso a day, receive free medicines, seeds, and tools, and a sum of not more than 200 pesos to help him build his house.

Señor Carlos Villegas Echeverri has been appointed director of the colony. Ten families chosen by the Ministry and the director are to go as the first pioneers, and not until these are settled will new applicants be accepted. Upon acceptance a settler must promise in writing to obey the regulations issued by the Ministry; to build his home within 120 days; to cultivate his tract, devoting at least one hectare to truck farming and six to cattle raising; to work three days a week on community projects and three on his land, receiving the same wage for both types of labor. Title to the land is given when the settler has half of his tract under cultivation, has built a home, and has settled his accounts with the commissary.

The most successful agricultural settlement project recently carried out by the Colombian Government is the colony in the Sumapaz region in the Department of Tolima, organized in accordance with a decree issued in 1931. According to the report of the Minister of Industries submitted to Congress last July, 1,081 settlers and their families have established themselves in the colony. Of these, 316 settlers receive Government aid in the form of materials and tools and the rest work on their own account. Most of the settlers have already built their homes and the rest live in provisional camps while they finish theirs. Up to last July, 252 houses had been erected with Government aid, 42 were under construction, and there were 17 camps. The houses are all of wood with corrugated metal roofing; some are two stories high and there is one with electric lights and telephone. Land cleared up to last July amounted to 4,803 hectares (11,868 acres) of which there were 1,888 (4,665 acres) under cultivation. In view of the growth of the colony, the Government sent this year an engineer and a city planning expert to choose a site and draw up plans for a garden city which the Government proposes to erect in the colony to serve as a model for future villages. Last May an extensive area bordering the colony, which had been purchased by the Government, was placed under the jurisdiction of the colony.



SUBSISTENCE HOMESTEADS IN ARGENTINA

A rural settlement plan evolved by the Ministry of Agriculture of the Argentine Republic, in accordance with a decree issued on August 7, 1935, seeks to establish *villas rurales* (farm settlements) for the purpose of providing permanent homes for peons, laborers and wage earners in general, who work in the different national Territories, as well as to concentrate in these *villas* those squatters who may be found in farming colonies and who do not have the means for purchasing average-sized parcels of land. The *villas* will be set up in the out-

skirts of towns or cities or within the colonies already established in national lands. Lots of nine acres will be awarded to duly qualified applicants, who will be allowed liberal terms of payment.

The conditions relative to settlement, cultivation and terms of payment applicable to these lands, the decree points out, will be the same as those established by the existing legislation for concessions of farm lands in general. Thus the settlers will have land on which to build their homes, and in addition be able to raise crops to meet the immediate needs of their subsistence.

PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAM ANNOUNCED IN HAITI

President Sténio Vincent of Haiti signed on August 30, 1935, a law approving a contract of August 23 between the Haitian Government and a French construction company for carrying out a public works program in the Republic. According to the contract, the program will consist in extending, constructing, and improving certain highway systems, executing irrigation and drainage works and supplying certain cities with drinking water, preparing a population census map of Haiti, improving the principal ports and most important cities of the Republic, supplying electricity to the country, and providing and building school houses and certain other public edifices. The works are to be carried on over a period of five years at an estimated cost of 500,000,000 francs. The loan is to be repaid in 40 years, the annual interest and amortization amounting to 16,706,-241.29 francs. The Government of Haiti has estimated that the work will give employment to 50,000 Haitians.

INDIAN EDUCATION IN BOLIVIA

The Government of Bolivia has appropriated 1,000,000 bolivianos for the establishment of 16 Indian educational centers throughout the Republic. These centers will try to unify the trend and methods of the national, municipal, and private Indian schools in their respective zones in accordance with a plan to be drafted by the authorities in charge of Indian education. The course of study in each center will of course depend upon the geographical characteristics of the zone in which it is established and upon the occupations from which the population derives its livelihood. A physician will be assigned to each center, and from the data which he assembles a detailed study of the psychological and physical development of Indian students will be compiled.

The distribution of the centers has been made in accordance with the density of the Indian population in each of the Departments into which Bolivia is divided. There will be three centers in Chuquisaca, three in Cochabamba, three in La Paz, two in Potosí, two in Oruro, and one each in Beni, Santa Cruz, and Tarija.

ART EDUCATION IN CHILE

The past five years have witnessed a reawakening in the field of art education in Chile. All tendencies in art instruction were represented in a recent exhibition, according to Professor Armando Lira of the Chilean School of Applied Arts, who asserts that, in the remarkable display of "sensitive capacity" and powerful "creative imagination" of the school children of today, credit is due principally to a group of distinguished teachers who "labor with enthusiasm and with a perfect understanding of the problem".¹

Artistic qualities are being stressed in the training of primary school teachers, Señor Lira points out, expressing the belief that a new plan of study devised by Martín Bunster, one of the leaders in this revitalizing movement, will "develop within a few years the powers of appreciation of the elementary school teacher and exert a powerful influence on the aesthetic sense of the Chilean boy and girl." Nature and the particular interests of the child constitute the basis of the modern plan used for the teaching of drawing in the primary schools.

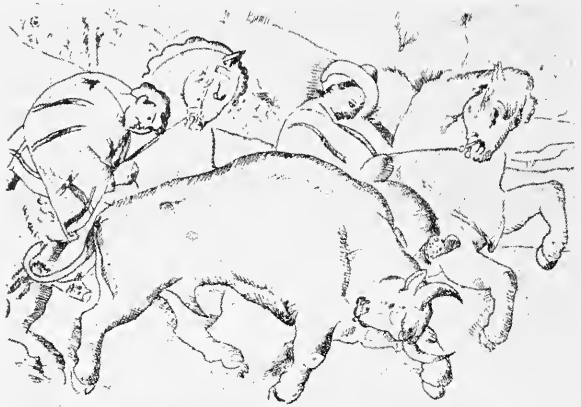
Carlos Isamitt is given credit for launching the movement in the secondary schools as long ago as 1928, when he revised the plan then in use and urged a more rational method which might aid the student on the road to "creative expression and a better understanding of the concepts of art." Since then, drawing has attained extraordinary importance in the *liceos* (or secondary schools), to the extent that it is deemed an element essential to the complete preparation of the student who hopes to enter an institution of higher education.

It is at the university, however, where this artistic revival has been most evident, particularly since the return to Chile of a number of young artists who had been awarded Government scholarships to pursue studies in Europe. Their reform ideas were accepted by the University of Chile and, acting in close harmony with the department of music, they have rendered outstanding service in the recently created School of Fine Arts, which has already "brought new life to national activities in the field of art". Furthermore, the section of applied arts has broadened its objectives, endeavoring to apply art to industry while "training the artisan, the craftsman and the technical instructor in the different fields of specialization".

¹ "Enseñanza del Dibujo," by Armando Lira, in "Revista de Arte," Santiago, Chile, No. 5, 1935.

ART EDUCATION IN CHILE.

This sketch by a normal school student was one of the interesting items in the comprehensive exhibit of school art work held in connection with the Inter-American Congress on Education in Santiago.



Courtesy of "Revista de Arte."

The Academy of Fine Arts in Santiago has succeeded in modernizing its methods of instruction, looking toward the "free expression of the art student", who is allowed complete freedom in his work. In the School of Architecture, Camilo Mori, the well-known painter, has established special classes in sketching, which have proven of immense value in the general program at that institution; while for the training of specialists in the field of art instruction, the *Instituto Pedagógico* (Teachers College) offers a four-year course taught by a select group of professors, including Marco Bontá, José Perotti, Mariano Picón Salas, Eliseo Otaíza, José Caracci, and Armando Lira. As a result of this extraordinary activity, Chile envisages in the near future an entire school population alive to art values, a "new aesthetic conscience" in the nation.

PERUVIAN ARTS EXHIBITION IN NEW YORK

An exhibition of ancient Peruvian art and its application to modern design in the work of two talented sisters, Señoritas Elena and Victoria Izcue, will be held in the Fuller Building, Madison Avenue at 57th Street, New York, from December 5 to 18, 1935. The exhibition is sponsored by a group of distinguished American men and women, headed by Miss Anne Morgan. His Excellency D. Manuel de Freyre y Santander, Peruvian Ambassador to the United States, is honorary chairman.

The Señoritas Izcue have become well known both in Peru and in Europe as workers in the field of applied design. From long and careful study of Peruvian decorative art, especially that of pre-Inca times, they have assembled an amazing repertory of designs suitable for use in modern textiles. Together they have worked

out a method of applying these designs to fine fabrics, silks, linens, cottons, and wools, using in a secret process of their own the vegetable and mineral dyes of the ancient Incas.

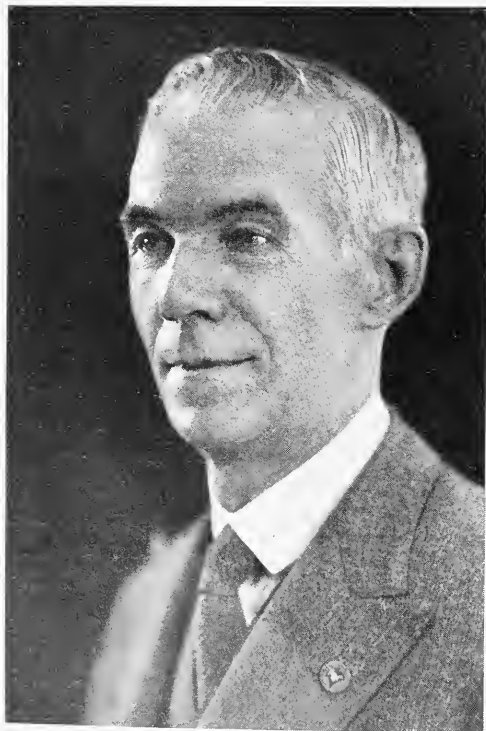
Because of the special character of its inspiration, the committee in charge of the Izcue Exhibition has prepared a superb loan exhibit of ancient Peruvian pottery, textiles, and ornaments from private collections and museums on both sides of the Atlantic as a background for this display of modern adaptations. The most distinguished item in the loan exhibit will unquestionably be the famous Paracas embroidered cloth, considered the rarest archaeological textile in the world; it is owned by Señor Rafael Larco Herrera of Peru, and for several years has been on exhibition in the Trocadéro Museum in Paris.

CAMPAIGN AGAINST ILLITERACY IN BRAZIL

Dr. Gustavo Armbrust of Rio de Janeiro, who was recently in the United States, visited the Pan American Union to explain his plans for a campaign against illiteracy in his country and to consult experts of the

Office of Education of the United States Department of the Interior. He has already enrolled many volunteer teachers and expects to add to their number.

Another interesting project for fighting illiteracy was presented to the First Brazilian Congress of Regional Education by Senhor John Wilson da Costa, inspector of poultry raising in São Paulo. He advocated making poultry raising the center of interest in rural schools, and basing arithmetic, language, nature study and other lessons on problems arising in connection with that activity. The State sent him to the United States for a brief visit of study and investigation.



DD. GUSTAVO ARMBRUST

LEGISLATION ON HOURS OF WORK IN THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

Law No. 929, signed by President Trujillo on June 21, 1935, regulated hours of work in commerce and industry in the Dominican Republic. The normal working day for both men and women wage earners shall be not more than 8 hours a day and 48 a week, except for persons in responsible positions, farm and rural workers, employees in small establishments in rural districts, and domestic servants. Provision is made for emergencies, accidents, and similar urgent cases, when for a period the working day may be increased 2 hours—but only to a 58 hour week—with compensation in either additional pay, at a stated rate, or a reduction in working hours during a later period.

Every worker is to be given a full day of rest after six working days. This shall be Sunday as a general rule, but in the cases of employees of restaurants, dairies, pharmacies, public utility companies, and others of similar nature, another day in the week may be chosen.

Establishments employing women must provide sufficient seats so that they may take advantage of moments of rest, and, if the women eat their lunches in the building, an adequate number of chairs and tables. Nursing mothers shall also be given two extra half-hour rest periods a day, without reduction in wages.

The employment of women between 10 o'clock at night and 5 in the morning is absolutely forbidden, as is that of minors under 14 in industrial establishments and maritime labor. Such minors may be employed in commercial undertakings provided that they also fill the requirements for school attendance.



VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE IN THE MUSEO SOCIAL ARGENTINO

The Museo Social Argentino has offered to the public the services of its vocational guidance bureau since October 1, 1931, when the Ministry of Public Instruction transferred to the Museo all the equipment of its dependency, the Institute of Experimental Psychology and Vocational Guidance, which had been abolished as an economy measure.

The report of the activities of the bureau for the year ended March 31, 1935, shows that it has been of increasing usefulness to the community.

At the beginning of that year, a notice was sent to teachers throughout the Republic, explaining the principles of vocational guidance and the purpose of this section of the Museo, and asking their cooperation in the task of offering guidance to those who needed it. The general public was informed of the bureau by means of 10,000 posters

explaining the scope of the service and inviting consultation without charge. For the information of special groups, the acting director, Señor Gregorio Fingerhann, gave lectures in the Center of Experimental Psychology and Vocational Guidance of the Museo under the auspices of the committee on adult education, and in the Medical School of the University.

Publicity in the elementary schools included addresses before the upper grades by members of the staff and the distribution of several thousand pamphlets. Aptitude tests were also given; requests for these came from official as well as private institutions. The Ministry of Public Works, for example, requested the bureau to determine the aptitudes of the apprentices in some of its shops.

In the secondary schools a course of lectures was given, as in other years, to members of the graduating classes to indicate the factors which should be taken into account when choosing a life occupation. The "Guide to Higher Studies" was greatly in demand, the National Library requesting many copies in answer to requests from abroad. The fact that the edition was almost exhausted made it impossible to supply all the demand, but the bureau has announced that a new and revised edition would probably be issued soon at the expense of the Ministry of Justice and Public Instruction.

The total number of consultations during the year was 1,150, an increase over that of previous years. This figure includes 160 aptitude tests, 366 requests—from 159 places in Argentina and from Chile, the United States, Spain, and Peru—attended to by correspondence, and 624 personal consultations.

CENTRAL PASTEURIZATION PLANT OPENED IN CHILE

The opening of the Central Pasteurization Plant of Santiago on August 25, 1935, marked another step in the efforts of official and semi-official circles to safeguard public health. Since August 1930 there had been on the statute books a law requiring the pasteurization of milk in certain cities, but owing to lack of facilities for carrying out the decree, it had not been enforced.

In 1935, however, the Compulsory Insurance Fund ¹ provided the necessary funds for the construction of a modern pasteurization plant with a capacity of 150,000 liters on the basis of a 10-hour working day (in cases of emergency the output can be increased to 240,000 liters). Beginning on September 1, 1935, therefore, all milk sold in the city must be pasteurized. The milk will be delivered in bottles

¹ For an account of the social welfare activities of the Compulsory Insurance Fund, see *BULLETIN* of the Pan American Union for October 1935.

with unbreakable dated metal caps, to prevent adulteration or decomposition. The plant also has equipment for manufacturing dried milk and making butter; all extra milk or that unsold within 24 hours will be used in one of these two ways.

The provision of safe milk is expected to increase the consumption of the product, which has averaged only 27 liters per person annually (a liter equals 1.06 quarts).

THE SALVADOREAN MORATORIUM LAW

A new moratorium law was issued in El Salvador on September 4, 1935, applying to all mortgage credits, rural or urban, signed prior to March 12, 1932. Many of these were originally short-term obligations, and the depression prevented debtors from fulfilling their contracts. To prevent wholesale foreclosures, these credits had heretofore been subject to emergency moratorium decrees.

The new law is designed to end the uncertainty created by emergency legislation subject to change at brief intervals, to establish definitely and finally the obligations of these debtors and creditors in the future, and to provide means for the eventual and orderly liquidation of the obligations in question. The law divides the mortgage credits affected into two classes: those guaranteed by rural property and those guaranteed by urban real estate. The two classes are treated slightly differently as to payment of interest, etc., but both are to pay interest and amortization in accordance with a table given in the law, involving lower costs during the first few years, and providing for eventual liquidation of the capital amounts over a period of 15½ years.

THE GOLD REVALUATION LAW OF URUGUAY

A law was issued by the General Assembly and signed by the President of Uruguay on August 14, 1935, revaluing the gold stock of the Bank of the Republic, establishing an autonomous department of issue and an exchange equalization fund and providing for the redemption of a number of internal bond issues, and for the replacement of four external issues, to the amount held in Uruguay, by an internal issue of 20,000,000 pesos. The gold stock revalued is that which is not affected by the law of November 9, 1934, the rate of revaluation being the average of the quoted official exchange rates during the 12 months immediately preceding the approval of the law, or approximately 1.23 pesos to the dollar. The profit to the Government by revaluation is estimated in the law at 48,765,439 pesos.

About 12,000,000 pesos will be used for the cancellation of certain Government accounts and the remainder principally in connection with the mortgage problem and for unemployment relief, education, and social welfare. The maximum note issue is limited to 101,000,000 pesos, which is somewhat lower than the previous maximum. The equalization fund, the law provides, is to be used also for the purchase of outstanding amortizable obligations, series 1a and 2a, and for interest and amortization on these series.



REGIONAL CONFERENCE OF THE INTERNATIONAL LABOR ORGANIZATION

The First Regional Conference to be held by the International Labor Organization will meet in Santiago, Chile, beginning January 2, 1936. All Latin American countries and the United States were invited to participate, and acceptances had been received from the majority of them by the middle of October. Costa Rica, which is not a member of the International Labor Organization, will send observers.

The agenda have been announced as including the following topics:

1. Raising to 16 the age of admission to employment permitted by the several Child Labor Conventions (proposed by the United States).
2. Rationalization of, and reduction of hours in, the textile industry (proposed by the United States).
3. Nutrition (proposed by Argentina, and in a slightly different form—working-class nutrition—by Chile).
4. Truck system [the payment of wages in kind] (proposed by Argentina).
5. Technical organization of labor inspection, its structure and functions; development of the provisions on this subject which appear in the recommendations already adopted by the conference (proposed by Chile).
6. Minimum wages, regarded particularly from the point of view of insuring an adequate standard of living for individuals and their families (proposed by Chile).
7. Living and working conditions of agricultural workers (proposed by Chile).

The United States delegation to the conference will be as follows:

Representing the United States Government:

MISS FRIEDA S. MILLER, Director of Women in Industry and Minimum Wage, New York State Department of Labor.

HON. HOFFMAN PHILIP, United States Ambassador to Chile;

Representing labor:

MR. WILLIAM L. HUTCHESON, President of the Carpenters' Union;

Representing employers:

MR. JOSEPH C. MOLANPHY, Latin American representative, U. S. Steel Products Corporation.

BRIEF NOTES

RADIO TELEPHONE SERVICE BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC OPENED.—On October 31, 1935, the opening of direct radio telephone communication between the United States and the Dominican Republic was marked by a conversation between the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States in Washington, and Señor Elías Brache jr., Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs of the Dominican Republic, in Santo Domingo.

FOREIGN DIPLOMATS SEE MEXICO.—Through the courtesy of the President of Mexico, General Lázaro Cárdenas, foreign diplomats accredited before his Government are making occasional visits to different parts of the Republic, in order to obtain first hand information regarding the progress being made under the Six-Year Plan in the rural districts. The diplomats and their wives travel in private cars from the Presidential train, placed at their disposal by the Chief Executive.

GOVERNMENT OF PANAMA DISTRIBUTES LAND AMONG POOR FARMERS.—The Government of Panama has appropriated the sum of \$75,000 for the purchase, division, and distribution of land among poor farmers. The money will be spent by the recently created National Agrarian Board which has been placed in charge of all matters relating to agricultural development in the Republic (see BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, November 1935). The *Star and Herald* of Panama reports that the Commission has already completed negotiations for the purchase of about 5,000 acres in the region between Pacora and Chepo for which the Government is said to have paid \$14,000. An experimental station is to be established in this newly acquired property to serve as a nucleus for the farm relief and development work in that part of the country.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF PHYSICAL CULTURE IN EL SALVADOR.—A law passed in May 1935, by the National Legislative Assembly of El Salvador authorizes the President of the Republic to appoint a National Council of Physical Culture, "for the exclusive purpose of organizing, promoting and encouraging physical culture in the country." The Council consists of five members, under the chairmanship of the Under-Secretary of Public Instruction, and membership is to be renewed every two years. Members of the Council, as well as all

other officials connected with the National Sporting Federation and the local departmental boards, serve without pay; the Government has made the necessary appropriation of funds however, to cover administration expenses and to "build, repair and maintain athletic fields" throughout the land. Physical culture exercises are made compulsory in public and private schools, under the Government's plan to improve the physical condition of its citizens.

FIRST SCHOOL ART MUSEUM OPENED IN BUENOS AIRES.—The Fernando Fader School Art Museum, named in honor of the noted Argentine painter who recently died, was opened on August 5, 1935. The museum, the first of its kind in the Republic, is located in school no. 24; it started with more than 40 exhibits of Argentine painting and sculpture, the majority of them donated by the artists.

MANUFACTURING IN THE STATE OF SÃO PAULO IN 1934.—According to information in the Brazilian press, reported by Aldene A. Barrington, Assistant U. S. Trade Commissioner at Rio de Janeiro, there were 6,469 factories operating in the State of São Paulo in 1934. They represented an investment of 1,454,013 contos, employed 162,902 wage earners, and used 212,108 h. p. in operation. The total value of their output, exclusive of the value of the electric power furnished, was estimated at 1,917,469 contos.

The two most important industrial centers in the state are São Paulo and São Bernardo. The former has 3,363 factories capitalized at 891,592 contos, employs 98,784 wage earners, and has an output valued at 1,231,387 contos; the latter has 191 factories capitalized at 125,044 contos, employs 8,157 wage earners, and has an output valued at 145,786 contos. The cities of Sorocaba, Jundiáhy, Campinas, Santos, Salto, Taubaté, and Ribeirão Preto are next in importance.

P. E. N. CLUBS MEETING IN BUENOS AIRES.—The Fourteenth International Congress of P. E. N. Clubs will meet for the first time in South America—in Buenos Aires in August 1936. For the congress the Government is planning to hold an exhibition of Argentine books from 1810 to the present time, travel books, studies dealing with the country that have been published abroad, and Argentine music, and to publish and translate into French and English representative works of contemporary Argentine authors.

EXTENSION OF RAILWAY LINE IN COLOMBIA.—Work on the extension of the Girardot-Tolima-Huila Railway from La Polonia Station to the city of Neiva was to have begun recently, 500,000 pesos having been appropriated last June for that purpose. The new construction will involve some 25 miles of line, and will be carried out directly by the Ministry of Public Works.

BOLIVIA TO REPAIR HISTORIC LANDMARK AT POTOSÍ.—By a decree issued by President Tejada Sorzano, the Bolivian Government has appropriated the sum of 30,000 bolivianos to make the necessary repairs to the historic *Casa Nacional de la Moneda* (National Mint), at Potosí, one of the outstanding works of architecture in the *Villa Imperial*, as the city was known in the days of colonial splendor in Upper Peru. The measure provides also for the establishment of a historical museum in the building, in addition to its continued use for the coinage of national currency. (See illustration on cover of the November issue of the BULLETIN.)

REGULATIONS OF HOURS OF LABOR IN URUGUAY.—A law establishing the 8-hour day in Uruguay was passed in November 1915, and since that date a multitude of decrees and regulations have been issued containing regulations concerning working hours in different industries. In order to make easier the observance of the law, the later legislation has been repealed and all regulations combined in a single decree issued on May 15, 1935.

PROVISION OF MEDICINE CHESTS FOR EMPLOYEES COMPULSORY IN EL SALVADOR.—According to decree no. 75 of July 22, 1935, every employer in El Salvador who has more than 10 persons working for him, whether in the country or in the city, shall provide a medicine chest containing certain required medicaments for the free use of his employees in case of accident or emergency.

HOME FOR UNPROTECTED MOTHERS AND CHILDREN OPENED IN BOGOTÁ.—On September 12, 1935, the Colombian Red Cross opened a home for unprotected mothers in Bogotá. It was dedicated to the memory of Señor José María Sáenz Pinzón, a philanthropic Colombian whose recent bequest to the society had made possible the construction and maintenance of the home.

EXPORT OF RED QUEBRACHO REGULATED IN ARGENTINA.—In order to maintain the quality of quebracho extract manufactured abroad, the Government of Argentina issued on August 29, 1935, at the instance of the National Quebracho Extract Commission, a decree requiring a special permit for the export of red quebracho logs of any but the first quality. The extract is used especially in the tanning industry.

ROAD BUILDERS HONOR MONTES DE OCA.—Luis Montes de Oca, former Secretary of the Treasury of Mexico, has received signal recognition for the important services he has rendered in connection with road building and development of the tourist trade in his country, by being chosen president of the Pan American Division of the American Road Builders Association. Señor Montes de Oca is also head of the Mexican Automobile Association.

NECROLOGY

FRANCISCO ANDRADE MARÍN.—A distinguished Ecuadorean statesman, Dr. Francisco Andrade Marín, died at Quito on September 6, 1935. For many years an outstanding figure in Ecuadorean public life, Dr. Andrade Marín held many important posts in the discharge of which he displayed unusual intelligence and patriotism. He was at one time Provisional President of the Republic, and had also been justice of the Supreme Court, member of the Legislature, Minister of State, and dean of the Central University. In tribute to his memory an executive decree was issued by the Provisional President of Ecuador expressing the sense of the loss felt by the country and ordering his burial with the honors due to his rank.

SALVADOR FALLA.—At the age of 90 the distinguished lawyer and statesman Señor Salvador Falla died in Guatemala City on September 11, 1935. Although born in Nicaragua, Señor Falla went to Guatemala while still a child, and was brought up by his grandfather, an artist of note. He received his law degree in 1869, and although he was active in art, science, and letters, it was in public life that his services were outstanding. In the course of his long life he was legal adviser to many administrations; member of the Supreme Court; delegate to Constituent Assemblies and the National Legislature; representative of the Government at many international conferences; cabinet member; an active or honorary member of many cultural societies, including the Guatemalan Academy of Letters; rector (president) of the National University; and president of the Society of Geography and History.







